

AMERICAN SOCIETY.

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AMERICAN SOCIETY.

BY

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IN TWO VOLUMES.

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PREFACE.

It is the purpose of this book to give an account, by an American, of American institutions and society, for the benefit of English readers.

The tourist from a foreign land is often only able to describe the general features of the nation which he visits, and must usually content himself with glimpses here and there, which are rarely sufficient to give an idea of the real life he attempts to depict. To afford a minute and trustworthy description of institutions and social habits, he must have resided long under their influence; he must also have entered fully into their spirit—a task almost insurmountable to a foreigner, even though he has lived many years in the country which he describes.

On the other hand, it is necessary for him who would present such a view as is here attempted, to know what to describe and what to omit, to discriminate between those things which are different in the two countries

and those things wherein they resemble each other, that he may point out differences and resemblances, and dwell upon those matters which are likely to be most interesting and instructive to his readers.

The writer is American by birth and education ; brought up in the midst of the society of which he writes. He has for some time resided in England.

Believing that the two countries have only to know each other to like each other ; that a more intimate knowledge of each other's institutions and social habits will result in a higher respect and appreciation the one of the other ; and that the profession of letters, earnestly and conscientiously directed to the purpose of bringing about this better acquaintance, is the most effective diplomacy which can be employed for cementing their international friendship,—the writer, desirous to promote so high an object, has undertaken this work.

*United States Consulate, Bradford,
December 1869.*

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AMERICAN SOCIETY.

CHAPTER I.

THE UNITED STATES GOVERNMENT. THE PRESIDENT :
His tenure of office—How he is elected—His inauguration.

THE United States Government is a Federal Republic, comprising, besides a vast territorial domain not yet organised into self-governing communities, thirty-seven states. Each of these states exercises all the powers of an independent nation within its own limits, excepting those powers which the people, by their free consent, have granted to the central government of the Union. These general powers are expressed and defined in the written Constitution, which was framed, in 1787, by a constituent Convention, and submitted to and approved by the people of the states which were then in existence. The general government thus established consists of three great departments. To the Legislative department is confided the duty of passing the laws ; to the Executive, that of approving and executing the laws ; and to the Judicial department, that of expounding and enforcing the laws. The legis-

lative power is invested in a Congress, consisting of an upper and lower house—the Senate and House of Representatives; the executive power, in the President of the United States; and the judicial power, in the Supreme Court of the United States, and certain inferior courts established by Congress.

Let us first consider THE PRESIDENT,—the mode in which he is chosen, his powers and position, and his official and social life. In him is centred the whole executive power of the Union. He is chosen for four years; and during that period he can only be dispossessed of his power and dignity in one way—by impeachment. The contrast between the executive system in England and that in America becomes apparent when it is noted, that while the Prime Minister, in whom rests the substantial executive power in England, may be at any time deprived of it by the action of the House of Commons, the President is independent of legislative action, and cannot be removed from his office excepting by the extreme method of a state trial. The only charges upon which the President can be impeached are those of “high crimes and misdemeanours.” The power of impeachment rests solely in the lower house of Congress, the House of Representatives; and the power of trying impeachments rests solely in the upper house, the Senate. A majority of the lower house has authority to decide upon, and institute proceedings in, an impeachment; the trial is had before the Senate acting as a “high court of im-

peachment," and presided over by the Chief-Justice of the United States; the prosecution is conducted by certain members of the lower house, who have been delegated by that house as "managers;" and the President can only be convicted by a vote of two-thirds of the senators present when the vote is taken, these senators being on oath or affirmation, as each prefers. The only punishments which can be inflicted by the Senate upon the President, in the event of a conviction, are removal from office, and disqualification to hold any office of honour or trust under the United States. The only case in which a President has been impeached was that of President Johnson in 1868; and the difficulty of removing the chief magistrate from his office may be inferred from the fact that, although Mr. Johnson was perhaps the most unpopular President who ever occupied the chair, and was opposed by the predominant party, comprising more than four-fifths of the senators, while he did not possess the confidence even of the minority, the impeachment failed for want of a two-thirds majority in the Senate. It is apparent from this, that while the real executive in England is not determinable at any stated limit, and is constantly subject to the majority of the House of Commons, the executive in America is for four years a permanent one, unaffected in tenure of power by the approval or disapproval of the legislature.

On the first Tuesday in November, every fourth year, the American people proceed to make their choice of a

President and a Vice-President of the United States; and on the fourth day of the March following, at twelve o'clock, the successful candidates enter upon their term of office. The manner of choosing the President is so different from anything in the experience of Englishmen, that the process, from the beginning, may be of interest. The steps leading to the grand result are various and gradual. As long as a year before the time of election, candidates begin to be discussed, the friends of aspiring statesmen and soldiers to bestir themselves, interested politicians to intrigue in favour of the man from whom they expect favour, and that energetic "wire-pulling," which is so marked a feature of American politics, begins to agitate every city, town, and village. The leaders of the great parties canvass among themselves the "eligibility" of the various names which are mooted; for it is a point with each party to adopt as a candidate, the man who will be at once the most acceptable to its own followers, the most popular with the masses of the people, and the most likely to draw votes from their opponents. Practical politics in America are carried on entirely by a system of caucuses, meetings, and conventions. Men who are ambitious for office, whether local, state, or national, in all cases seek the endorsement of the representatives of their party gathered in formal assemblage. No man thinks of proposing himself as a candidate before the electors, even for alderman or town "selectman," until he has been nominated by a majority of the regular party body

which meets for the purpose. In England the candidate, whether for parliament or for local offices, either proposes himself, or his friends perform the service for him; in America, the nominee of the party convention has usually nothing to fear from ambitious and independent rivals of his own creed. The result is, that elections in America are more often fair and clear contests between two men of opposite parties; while in England candidates are sometimes defeated by the independent rivalry of men of their own political faith.

During the winter preceding the presidential election, active steps begin to be taken with a view to that event. The first movement is for each party to summon what is called in the city a "ward-meeting" of its supporters; in the rural districts this primary conclave is called the "town-meeting." Anyone professing to belong to the party whose committee has called the meeting is at liberty to attend it. These meetings, being held everywhere throughout the state, elect certain delegates to attend the "State Convention." They are usually led by two or three of the more prominent local politicians, to whom are intrusted the tasks of drawing up the lists of delegates, drafting the resolutions, and making the speeches. Each party has its "State Central Committee:" this appoints a time and place for the State Convention to meet, and the Convention thus summoned chooses the next year's Central Committee. One of the more central towns having been chosen as the rendezvous, the State Convention,

composed of delegates representing all sections of the state, assembles in the spring or early summer, and proceeds to business. To this body is committed the duty of nominating, by ballot, the party candidates for the state officers—the governor, secretary, treasurer, &c. In the year of the presidential election they are intrusted also with the duty of choosing delegates for the state to the “National Convention” of the party, which is to meet later, and which is in its turn to make choice of the party’s candidates for President and Vice-President.

The number of the delegates from each state to the National Convention corresponds exactly to the number of representatives in Congress which that state elects. One delegate is chosen for each congressional district—that is, each district which sends a member to the lower House of Congress—and two delegates in addition are chosen “at large,” to correspond to the two national Senators to which each state, large or small, is entitled. Besides these, “alternate” delegates are chosen to take the place of any of the regular delegates who, for any reason, may not attend the Convention. The National Convention, composed thus of delegates from all the states, is the supreme authority of the party which it represents; and as the time for the assembling of either of the National Conventions approaches, the public interest in them becomes intense. People begin to speculate upon the prospects of this or that prominent candidate before

the Convention ; the politicians are in a perpetual fever ; and the newspapers discuss the probabilities with ever-augmenting zeal. The excitement is not seldom increased by the different State Conventions pledging, or “ instructing,” their delegates to vote in Convention for this or that candidate ; and when this is done by many of the State Conventions, the chances of the aspirants appear in bolder relief, the contest becomes narrowed and sharpened by the rivalry of a few famous names, and the agitation in the political circles is greatly heightened.

One of the larger cities—New York, or Philadelphia, or Chicago, or Cincinnati, or Baltimore—is selected as the place for holding the National Conventions. The largest hall is engaged for its sessions ; and sometimes (as was the case at Chicago, where the Republican National Convention met in 1860) an immense wooden structure is erected on some wide area for the purpose, and is called in the political vocabulary the “ big wigwam.” The “ wigwam” of 1860 contained plain wooden benches, ranged in long rows, for the delegates. At one end was a broad platform for the officers of the Convention, the reporters, the dignitaries of the party, and the orators ; there were galleries for spectators ; and the whole building was fancifully decorated with flags, festoons, party emblems and mottoes, and rude but striking portraits of the party chiefs. Already, before the day appointed, multitudes of politicians, members of Congress, governors of states, and

delegates, have flocked to the city where the Convention is to meet. The hotels and boarding-houses are full to overflowing, and are, as regards prices, "masters of the situation;" and in their corridors, and on the streets, excited talking and zealous arguments are going on, and groups of patriots, who have the welfare of the country—or of themselves—at heart, are encountered at every turn. Meanwhile in more retired places, and with less noise, deep plots are being concocted, wires with undiscoverable ends are working, and combinations by which this candidate is to be sacrificed, and that one carried, are being formed. In one respect the assembling of the National Conventions is to Americans what Derby-day is to the Briton,—the occasion for unlimited betting. Fortunes have been made by a lucky guess as to "the favourite."

The eventful morning arrives, and near the place of meeting stump speeches are being delivered, the delegates are assembling, and all is uproar and confusion. The first day is occupied in organising the Convention, in choosing officers and hearing them orate, in selecting committees on credentials, on the "platform," on nominations, &c., and in verifying the commissions of the delegates. To relieve the monotony of the business, one of the orators of the party is sometimes called on to expound the "issues of the hour." On the second day the Convention assembles, conscious that the tug of war has come. The preliminary business is finished; the president of the Convention,

amid great excitement, announces that the order of the day is the nomination of candidates for President and Vice-President of the United States. He has need then of some parliamentary patience; for a loud buzzing arises all over the hall, the delegates huddle together, pass slips of paper to and fro, gesticulate, and are utterly deaf to the repeated thumps of the gavel. The delegation from each state, having chosen one of their number as chairman, sit together; the chairman is their mouthpiece, announcing the votes of his colleagues, and addressing the Convention in the name of the state which they represent. Order being at last secured, the next thing is to propose the various candidates for the nomination. The chairman of one of the delegations rises, and, with a flourish of stump rhetoric, "begs to propose to the Convention, as its nominee for President, that great soldier and unsullied patriot, General Grant." The friends of the man so proposed set up "tumultuous applause," and the nomination is seconded by half-a-dozen eager voices. All the names of candidates having thus been brought before the Convention, it proceeds to what is called a "ballot;" the voting, however, is *viva voce*. The secretary calls the roll of the states in alphabetical order; and as each state is called, the chairman of its delegation, standing on the bench, declares its vote as follows. The secretary calls "Massachusetts." The chairman of the Massachusetts delegation promptly shouts out, "Massachusetts casts five votes for Grant,

four votes for Chase, and one vote for Sumner," or however the votes of Massachusetts have been given to him; and so the voting goes on till every state delegation has voted. If there is no choice, further ballots are taken; the excitement increases as the votes of this or that state change from one candidate to another, and grows more intense with every ballot, until some name triumphs by receiving a majority of all the votes cast. When at last it is evident who is "the coming man," the delegations of the different states hasten eagerly to "wheel into line;" that is, to change their votes, and cast them for the candidate who is evidently now on the high road to success. Then the enthusiasm of the Convention rises to its height; state after state—the chairmen indulging in fervid flights of an eloquence peculiar to such assemblies as they announce the votes—"wheels into line;" cannon begin to boom outside; a full-length portrait of the victorious candidate forthwith is displayed on the platform; the band, stationed at one side, strikes up, and the Convention becomes a very mob of excited men, who rush about, and shout, and wave handkerchiefs, and are beside themselves with the delirium of the moment. A similar process—only that it is less exciting—is gone through in making choice of a candidate for Vice-President. The Convention has but one more task—that of framing what is called the party "platform." The platform is simply a series of resolutions adopted by the National Convention, and embodying the political prin-

ciples in favour of which the party asks the support of the people. These resolutions are drawn up by a committee appointed for the purpose; and having been discussed, are adopted with enthusiasm. A committee having then been selected to formally notify the candidates of their nomination, the Convention adjourns, the news is telegraphed everywhere, and that night great mass meetings, to ratify the nominations, take place in all the cities and towns throughout the land.

When the Conventions of both parties have been held, have made choice of their candidates, and have given them a platform to stand upon, the presidential campaign opens in earnest. The nominations are usually before the nation as early as July, and the contest goes on with ever-increasing heat for the four months which intervene before November. In every city, town, and village, the organisations of both parties are already complete and in working order: there are committees in every ward and district; "head-quarters" for keeping the records and serving as a rendezvous for the canvassers; volunteer orators of more or less eloquence, ready to go anywhere at any time to speak in behalf of the candidates; and elaborate preparations for great meetings, with the inspiring accompaniments of torchlight processions, great bonfires, and not seldom of "barbecues," where oxen are roasted whole and cider-barrels are tapped and drained, by which to turn the popular tide in the right direction. It is customary for each party, in small villages as well as in the largest cities, to

hang national flags on lines passing from house to house over the streets, and bearing the names of its candidates. If you visit America during a presidential contest, you will see flags waving over the streets, bearing the names, this one of the Democratic candidates—say “Seymour and Blair;” and not far off another, with the Republican names “Grant and Colfax;” while at the top is seen some patriotic and pungent motto. These greet you at every turn.

Congress is not in session, and the leading Senators and representatives of both parties throw themselves into the campaign as vigorously as do the lesser luminaries of the political world. The oratorical talent of both sides is called upon to exert itself to the utmost. Meetings are held everywhere; and there are, as well as brilliant processions, party picnics, excursions, and general illuminations. These meetings and celebrations become more frequent as election-day approaches. Meanwhile the press is busy searching into the career and character of the candidates; publishers vie with each other in issuing “campaign lives” of the rival aspirants; and the walls and fences of city and town bewilder one with their multitude of large-lettered and vari-coloured placards, warning the public of the “terrific importance of the present crisis.”

On the same day—the first Tuesday in November—the whole nation proceeds to the election. Polling-stations are selected in each election district, usually consisting of a plain room, where is placed a large bal-

lot-box, presided over by one of the election officials, while another checks the names of the voters in the printed list as they advance and deposit their ballots. Just outside of each polling-room the committees of each party have stationed men with ballots, containing the names of their candidates; so that when the voters come up, the ballots of both parties are eagerly thrust upon them by these emissaries from the two camps. But this important fact is to be observed, that the people do not vote *directly* for President and Vice-President. According to the American system, the party state conventions (before referred to) choose, as well as delegates to the National Convention, certain persons who are candidates for what are called "electors." These electors must be equal in number to the whole number of senators and representatives to which the state is entitled in Congress. It is for the electors, and not directly for President and Vice-President, that the people vote. The ballots contain, then, the names, not of the party candidates for the latter offices, but of the party candidates for electors. But these candidates for electors are already pledged in their turn to vote for the party candidates for President and Vice-President; so that the people are voting practically, though indirectly, for the latter. The electors of one party or the other having been duly chosen, they meet in their respective states some time after the general election, and vote for President and Vice-President, always selecting, of course, the nominees of the

National Convention of the party to whom they owe their own election.* The result of the ballots given by the electors of each state are carefully engrossed and sealed in duplicate: one copy is sent by mail, and the other by a special messenger, to the President of the national Senate at Washington. In the February following, the two Houses of Congress assemble in joint session in the hall of the House of Representatives; the President of the Senate takes the chair, and in the presence of the legislature thus united, proceeds to count the votes of the electors of all the states for President and Vice-President, and to formally declare the successful candidates duly elected.

The fourth day of the March immediately following the presidential election is perhaps the most interesting of all days at the American capital. Then takes place the inauguration, and induction into office, of the newly-elected President and Vice-President. The simplicity of the ceremony—which yet has a certain dignity strikingly in harmony with the republican traditions of the Union—presents a marked contrast to the pomp and splendour of European coronations. There is no blaze of crowns and coronets, of gold lace and jewelled knightly orders; there are no long-flowing

* The electors being pledged to vote for the candidates of their party for both President and Vice-President, and the people being confined in their choice to the lists of electors presented by each party, it follows that no one can cast his vote for the presidential nominee of one party and the vice-presidential nominee of the other, but must vote for both candidates of one party or the other.

robes, no symbols suggestive of the era of ostentatious chivalry; there are no gorgeous liveries, or heraldic banners, or gilded canopies; from the head of the nation down to the humblest looker-on, who gazes curiously upon him as he passes by—excepting only the judges, who wear plain silk gowns—there is no distinctive dress, no external sign to announce dignity or office. The troops, and the envoys of foreign powers, alone appear habited in ornate costumes. The ceremony of inauguration takes place at the capital exactly at noon. The President-elect, usually accompanied by the out-going President, is escorted by a long line of troops, in an open barouche, to the Capitol; arrived there, he proceeds to the Senate chamber, where the Senators, the members of the lower House, the diplomatic corps in uniform, the judges of the Supreme Court, the cabinet of the out-going President, and multitudes of eager spectators in the spacious galleries, are awaiting him. The President-elect enters the chamber with his predecessor and the Vice-President-elect, all of whom are dressed in simple black broadcloth; chairs have been placed for them just below the presiding officer's desk, and there they take their seats. The first ceremony is, that of administering the oath to the new Vice-President, and inducting him into office. The Vice-President of the United States has but one official duty, that of presiding over the national Senate. When by death, resignation, disability, or impeachment, the office of President becomes vacant, the Vice-President

becomes President for the remainder of the term. But although officially the presiding officer of the Senate, he does not continuously perform that duty. He may preside when he so pleases; meanwhile, the Senators elect one of their own number as President *pro tempore*, who always presides in the Vice-President's absence. His salary is 8000 dollars per annum. The Vice-President having taken the oath of office, ascends to the desk, and briefly addresses the Senate. This done, a procession, comprising the out-going and in-coming Presidents and Vice-Presidents, the Senate and House, going in pairs, and the other State and foreign dignitaries, advances from the Senate chamber to the vast open portico of the Capitol. Here a platform has been erected, on which is built a plain wooden canopy. Under this seats are placed, and a table. Long benches are also ranged on either side for the assembled dignitaries. In the broad esplanade below the portico a vast crowd of spectators has gathered, and is awaiting the arrival of the procession. The President-elect takes a seat under the canopy; on the other side of the table may be seen the Chief-Justice of the United States in his silk robe; on the table is a large Bible. Amid breathless silence the Chief-Justice rises, and the elect of the people follows his example; the Chief-Justice presents the Bible, and the new President, laying his hand upon the sacred volume, repeats after him the following brief oath: "I do solemnly swear that I will faithfully execute the office of President of the United States, and

will, to the best of my ability, preserve, protect, and defend the Constitution of the United States." Having thus become legally the President of the United States, he advances to the front of the platform, and delivers, or reads, his Inaugural address. This document has a significance similar to that of the speeches from the Throne, although perhaps less oracular; its purpose is to announce the general policy of the new Administration. Sometimes it is delivered in so low a tone as to be inaudible; for many of the Presidents—Grant among them—have not been orators. President Lincoln, however, delivered his Inaugurals with great distinctness and force. The peroration of the address is the signal for dispersing; it ends the ceremony of inauguration. The procession re-forms, and the new President is escorted to the White House—the official residence of the Presidents—of which he takes formal possession. Then follows a general reception, in the great "East room," of all citizens who desire to grasp the hand of the new chief magistrate. The doors are thrown open: all enter who like; the President, attended by his marshal, stands near the door of one of the drawing-rooms; the multitude files by him, and each and all are introduced to him by name—the marshal acting as master of ceremonies; and this—to the President—most wearying occupation takes up a large part of the afternoon.*

* On the day that the venerable President Harrison was inaugurated, he soon became so exhausted by the perpetual hand-

In the evening takes place a brilliant *fête*, in celebration of the new powers, called the "inauguration ball." This is held either in one of the vast halls of the public departments, or in an immense wooden edifice constructed for the purpose. All are admitted who choose to pay the two-guinea fee for tickets; chairs are placed on a slightly raised platform for the President and his lady; all the notabilities of the nation, and the foreign envoys in their stars and gold lace, are present; those sumptuous toilets and magnificent costumes, in which the wealthy American ladies vie with the proudest of their European sisters, are bewildering in their abundance; the dancing proceeds under difficulties, so enormous is the crowd; and the supper-room is a scene of confusion and struggling, where only the boldest may succeed in procuring refreshment for the inner man. Thus ends Inauguration-day, and with it the process of choosing the President, and of establishing him in his four years' dignity.

shaking, that he was forced to suspend his arm in a sling, and discontinue this by no means refreshing species of manual labour.

CHAPTER II.

THE PRESIDENT: *His powers and political position—
The presidential mansion—Society at the White
House—Every-day life in the President's family.*

THE President must, according to the Constitution, be thirty-five years of age, and a native of the United States. His salary is 25,000 dollars (5,000*l.*) a-year—the same as that of the English Prime Minister. He is, by virtue of his office, commander-in-chief of the armies and navy, and of the militia of the several states when called into the actual service of the United States. He has the absolute power to grant pardons to all offenders, political and criminal, against the laws of the United States, excepting to such persons as may have been convicted by impeachment; but this power cannot be exercised in favour of offenders against *state* laws. He may make treaties and conventions with foreign powers, but only by and with the consent of two-thirds of the national Senate, which possesses certain executive as well as legislative powers. To him is confided, subject to the approval of the Senate, the appointment of the national officers—of envoys and consuls to foreign countries, cabinet ministers, judges of United States courts, and the subordinate officials engaged in the service of the United States;

excepting those minor officials who are appointed by the Cabinet ministers or the judges. He may, whenever he thinks it politic, summon Congress to an extra session, or even the Senate alone, for the performance of the executive part of its functions; but he has no power to prorogue or dissolve Congress, or either of its branches. At the opening of the annual session of Congress he communicates to it a written "Message," in which he reviews the events and condition of the country since it last met, and suggests whatever legislative measures he may think timely and important; and during the session, whenever there is occasion for it, he communicates in the same manner with the Legislative bodies. The two first Presidents—Washington and John Adams—followed the English precedent of addressing the legislature in person; but the third—President Jefferson—being no orator, and feeling an invincible repugnance to public speaking, introduced the custom of sending a written address; and that example has been followed ever since. When the President delivered his message in person, Congress was wont to vote an address in reply, and deliver it to him in a body; but since messages have been sent this has been discontinued, and Congress discusses them in committee of the whole house.

Besides these functions, it is the duty of the President to superintend the execution of the laws and the routine of the national administration. Inasmuch, however, as he is unable to exercise this personal super-

vision over all the great departments himself, the constitution provides him with certain executive officers, who take charge of the several departments, and are responsible to him for their effective operation, he being in turn responsible for the same to the nation. The Cabinet, as a Cabinet, has no existence in the American constitution, any more than it has in the English; but practically, the Ministers of the departments are the intimate and confidential council of the President.

The main difference between the American and the English Cabinet is, that the former owes no direct responsibility to the legislature, but only to the executive; that, while in England, the Cabinet sits in Parliament, and its members are called upon individually by the representatives of the nation to explain matters relating to the department of each, the American Cabinet has no place in either house of the legislature, is responsible to the President alone, and holds office, subject only to the extreme method of impeachment, at his will. While the English Cabinet have a kind of individual responsibility and administrative independence, the American Cabinet are legally but the agents assisting the President in fulfilling the executive office. The President, however, naturally chooses for his Cabinet men in whom he has confidence—men who both agree with him in political faith, and who are intellectually capable as well of tendering him useful advice on general policy, as of conducting

their particular departments. It has therefore come to pass that, in case any of the Cabinet dissent from the opinion of the majority of their colleagues, or from that of the President, in a question of general policy, they retire from office. But this is to be observed—that, while in England, the secession of influential members from the Cabinet is not unlikely to break up the existing administration altogether, and to introduce, for a time at least, the opposite party into power, in America the whole Cabinet may retire, it may be changed throughout a dozen times in the course of a presidential term, and the general policy of the Government may yet remain quite the same; it is, after all, in America, but the substitution of one subordinate for another, the same work transferred from one hand to another. A further difference between the American and the English executive is often remarked—that while the President not only possesses, but frequently exercises, the very large power of the *veto*, that power, though still existing in law, has practically become obsolete in England, and no English government has ventured to use it for a century and a half. The President can and does veto any law passed by Congress and sent up for his sanction, of which he disapproves. Then, if it can be carried by a two-thirds vote of both Houses, it becomes a law in spite of him; but unless a measure can secure this two-thirds majority, the President may effectually condemn it. No “appeal to the country,” as in England, can force it upon him;

impregnable behind his right as conferred by the constitution, he may effectually defy the majority in Congress, and even the people, as long as his official term lasts. In the practical power to use the veto, in possessing the command of the military forces, in the almost absolute tenure of his authority, which can only be terminated by the extreme course of a state trial, in his independence of his Cabinet, and his ability to change advisers and administrators almost at will, and because the administration does not bear the burden of perpetual personal questionings in the legislature, the authority of the American President is clearly more substantial, individual, and extensive than that of the English executive.

The White House is naturally the centre of the metropolitan society. The "republican court" over which the President and his lady preside is, however, as may be conjectured, very different from the life in European palaces. Everything savours of the simplicity and absence of ceremony which befits a democratic state; yet the social customs of the White House are not so sansculottic and indiscriminating as they have often been described. First, let me briefly describe the White House itself. It is too plain, one is apt to think, even for republican severity itself. It is situated at the west end of the city, about a mile from the hill whereon the majestic white marble edifice of the Capitol, lifted high above the town, stands. A magnificently broad and straight thoroughfare—where

are all the principal shops and hotels, and which is shaded by rows of trees—conducts from the Capitol park to the presidential mansion. The latter edifice is itself situated in the midst of the capacious buildings which comprise the great public offices—the Treasury, War, and Navy departments. Between the White House itself and the street is a lawn, edged with flower-beds, and in the middle of which stands a curious copper statue of President Jefferson, green and corroded by age. Avenues on either side of this lawn lead to the portico of the White House. The portico is high, and supported by massive pillars; the building is of sandstone painted white—hence its name—and does not externally give a hint of either spaciousness or comfort. From the portico you pass into a large but almost wholly unadorned vestibule, a glass partition separating it from the corridors beyond. Passing to the left you enter a high door, and find yourself at the foot of a broad staircase. This leads to the President's official apartments. First you reach a perfectly plain ante-room, or waiting-room: if you are seeking an audience, it is here, supplied with the daily papers, that you must bide your time. One or two steps lead into a broad corridor; doors on either side conduct from this corridor to the President's business reception-room, his library, his private secretary's apartment, two or three consulting-rooms, and the chamber where the cabinet meetings are held. The reception-room strikes you as remarkably plain and simple; the furniture is

substantial but far from gaudy; the adornments are few and tasteful. A large desk stands near the window; it is that used by the President for writing or reading. There are also a few bookcases, mostly filled with those volumes in law-calf, which suggest the solidity of their contents. The room where the Cabinet meets is also plainly elegant, with a long table and *fauteuils* in the centre, curious from their having been used by a long succession of famous statesmen. Through the corridors and chambers are a few busts, portraits, and sculptures; these are almost the only ornaments. The drawing-rooms, which are all on the ground-floor, are, in contrast with that portion of the house devoted to business, very richly decorated and furnished; especially is this the case with the vast East room, which extends the whole length of one side of the edifice, and is adorned with heavy cornicing and frescoes, rich carpets and hangings, and massive mirrors and mantelpieces at frequent intervals. At the south side of the White House is a really beautiful lawn and park, extending to the banks of the Potomac river, with fountains, flower-beds, pretty copses of trees and shrubs, and graceful artificial hillocks—resembling not a little some of the smaller and well-cared-for parks one sometimes sees in rural England. A cozy balcony looks out upon this park from the mansion. On one side of the White House is an extensive conservatory of fruits and flowers, with doors communicating with the main building; on the other side are the stables,

kitchens, and storehouses. The family of the President occupies well-furnished and spacious apartments in the wing opposite to that devoted to public duties.

The public hospitalities of the White House are extended to all who desire to receive them. Anyone who is respectable in dress and appearance may, without ceremony, pay his respects to the President. This is, perhaps, but conforming to the republican principle, that the President is the servant of the nation, and that it is only due to the sovereign people that he should be accessible to all. His hours of public reception are from ten till four; and he receives every day, excepting the days when the cabinet meetings take place; and the Cabinet meets usually on Tuesdays and Fridays. When Congress is in session, the President gives preference, between the hours of ten and twelve, to such Senators and Representatives as may call, and to the cards of those with whom he is personally acquainted. After twelve the reception becomes general. If you desire to see and shake hands with the President, you have but to present yourself, neatly dressed—although no especial costume is required—at the door, and you will be at once admitted and directed to the ante-chamber upstairs. There you will find, in ordinary times, thirty or forty others waiting on the same errand. The hour of the reception having arrived, an usher announces to the visitors that the President is ready to see them, and leads the way, the visitors informally following, to the modest reception-

room. The President is there, standing in the middle of the room, often quite unattended. Each visitor in turn approaches him, and is welcomed with outstretched hand; he introduces himself, states his business, if he has any, or passes the compliments of the day, the President courteously listening, and makes way for the next. Of course the cordiality of the reception varies with the disposition of each President. Presidents Fillmore and Lincoln were remarkably talkative and sociable; the latter, especially, never seemed to weary of chatting and joking with his guests, numerous as they were, and had a quaint saying, an anecdote, or at least a pleasant word, for every one. President Buchanan was more stiff and sedate; he was observed to ask almost every stranger to the Capitol a set formula of questions: "Have you seen the Smithsonian?" "No." "Well, you must go." "Have you seen the Capitol, the Washington Monument, Mount Vernon?" "No." "Well, you must go." President Grant is quiet, placid, yet not at all starch; receives easily and naturally, says little, occasionally betrays a little glimpse of dry wit; listens patiently; and if his visitor be an office-seeker, remains provokingly impenetrable. If the "rush" at Washington is not very great, one may often, by sending in a card, see the President alone, in his reception-hours; and these White House hospitalities, these little private interviews are willingly accorded to foreigners visiting Washington. The President's wife, who is, of course,

the leader of the metropolitan society, holds receptions for ladies and gentlemen on a certain day in the week, from one till four ; the occasion is unceremonious and sociable ; free to all who come ; and is the more interesting, that the President, towards the close of the reception, usually makes his appearance, and greets and chats with his lady's guests. During the Washington "season," which is from December to March or April—Congress being then in session—the President and his lady hold weekly evening "levees." It is at these levees that you see the republican court, and life at the political metropolis, at its best. The levee, as the receptions, is open to all without distinction ; it is, notwithstanding, a most brilliant and fashionable assembly, democratic yet splendid, where the poorest may go to see, and the richest find it worth their while to be seen. The ladies are attired in their most elaborate toilets—and there are no toilets at the Tuileries balls more dazzling and costly. The foreign ministers, with their suites, are there, in gorgeous apparel ; there you may see the great dignitaries of the Republic from the social and unofficial point of view. The guests begin to arrive at the White House about eight o'clock. Ample provision is made for the disposal of cloaks, hats, shawls, and other *impedimenta* ; these are taken by women in the vestibule, ticketed, and carefully put away in rows of boxes. A procession of the guests forms at the door leading to the drawing-rooms, and slowly passes along until it reaches the

“Green room”—so named from the prevailing colour of the decorations—where the President, in broadcloth and white necktie, is waiting to receive them. Beside him stands the marshal of the District of Columbia, in whose ear the guests whisper their names, which he announces to the President. There is time but for a word, and the procession tides on. Just beyond him are stationed his wife and the ladies of her family; another official introduces the guests, the ladies of the mansion bow, and the presentation to the presidential family is over. Grouped behind his Excellency are usually to be seen several members of the Cabinet and their families, Senators, diplomats, military celebrities, and his personal friends and secretaries; and many in the procession are fain to drop out of it, and remain in the Green room, where, if it be not too crowded to incommode the hosts, they may stand and observe the notabilities as near and as long as they please. Of fancifully-dressed lacqueys and chamberlains there are none; a few ushers in plain attire, a few policemen here and there, compose the sum-total of the presidential service. The tide of guests sweeps on to the long East room, which is soon filled with a brilliant and lively multitude. Some stand talking in groups; others promenade up and down the room, the procession of promenaders forming a moving circle around the apartment; yet others seat themselves on the richly-covered sofas, and contemplate the scene. There is never dancing at the President’s levees; but a military band

is stationed at one side, and from time to time discourses lively music for the entertainment of the guests. At about ten, when the guests have mostly arrived and been presented, the President leaves his post in the Green room, offers some lady his arm, and democratically taking his place among the rest promenading in the East room, passes around, now and then stopping to chat with some acquaintance, and doubtless glad to escape the manual exertion of the reception; and his example is followed by the ladies of his family, who are often escorted by a cabinet minister or a Senator. Thus the evening passes away; the hour of breaking-up is about eleven. When the band plays the familiar air of "Yankee Doodle," it is a hint to the guests to prepare for departure. Neither at the levee, nor at any of the receptions, are refreshments of any kind offered to the company. It was formerly the custom to provide refreshments; but it was discontinued by President Jackson, whose stubborn independence of character was shown in this, as in far more serious matters.

During the winter it is the habit of the President to give a series of official dinners. The Cabinet, the diplomatic corps, the judges of the Supreme Court, the Senators, and the members of the lower House, are successively invited to the chief magistrate's table. On New-Year's-day a day levee is held at the White House; and this example is followed by all the notabilities and would-be notabilities of the city. The President receives the dignitaries, native and foreign,

from eleven to twelve; and the general public are admitted from twelve to three. At the White House, as has been said, no refreshments are offered; but at the New-Year's receptions of the Cabinet, the Vice-President, and Speaker, the more prominent Congress men, the mayor, and the leaders of the metropolitan society, tables are spread, sometimes very profusely and luxuriously, for the entertainment of visitors. The public is admitted without distinction to these, as to the White House receptions.

The everyday life at the Executive Mansion (the official designation of what is popularly called the "White House") is perhaps as simple and unostentatious as that of the well-to-do private American citizen. The service consists of a steward and under-steward, a head cook and two or three subordinates, a few table waiters, one coachman and one footman, one gardener and his assistants. For official purposes, the President is provided with a private secretary, two assistant-secretaries, and a stenographer, who acts as clerk to the Cabinet council, and reports the President's official interviews and receptions. There is no military corps attached to the President's person, as is the case at European courts. His carriage is modest, quite without escutcheons or other adornment, drawn by a span of sleek horses, and driven by a coachman without any livery. The presidential family usually breakfasts about nine. Immediately after, the President goes to his office and receives his Cabinet ministers, if any of

them wish to consult him; at ten begins, as has been described, the public reception; this over, the President, often accompanied by members of his family, drives out, returning to dine at six. The evening is passed much in the same way as in a private family; the President receiving visits from personal friends, or attending to any public business which may be urgent. Formerly the President was not in the habit of himself making private calls, it being regarded as contrary to etiquette; but President Pierce broke through the custom, and was wont to visit his friends, and his example has been followed to some extent by Presidents Lincoln, Johnson, and Grant. The President's wife receives and returns calls much as if she were a private lady. The recent tendency is for the President to mix very freely with the people as a citizen; he may often be seen walking alone through the streets; he frequently attends public festivals and dinners; the theatre was a favourite resort of many of the Presidents, especially of Lincoln, and was indeed the scene of that beloved patriot's assassination. President John Quincy Adams, the father of the late American envoy at the English court, was wont, during the summer, to rise very early, walk off quite alone to the river, a mile distant from the White House, and take a morning plunge in its refreshing waters; and he attributed his vigorous old age to this habit.

The White House, its furniture, service, and its ordinary expenses, are provided by the nation. A few

miles from Washington there is a series of spacious buildings with grounds, situated in a pleasant and secluded spot called the "Soldiers' Home." Its main use, as its name implies, is to provide a retreat for disabled soldiers—it is a sort of miniature Chelsea Hospital. One of the buildings, originally designed for the commandant of the hospital, is reserved and fitted up as a summer residence of the President and his family; the press of business over, and the excessive heat of the southern summer arrived, the President has been accustomed frequently to retire there for repose. A proposition has been made in Congress to purchase and fit up a country residence near the metropolis worthy of the President's dignity; a committee has been appointed to select a site and make the estimates, and the project will doubtless be ere long carried out.

CHAPTER III.

THE CABINET AND PUBLIC DEPARTMENTS: *The Diplomatic and Consular Service—The Treasury—The Army and Navy—The Interior—Agriculture—The Post-office—The Attorney-General—The Public Edifices—The Cabinet in Society.*

THE Cabinet consists of seven members; they are, the Secretaries of State, of the Treasury, of the Interior, of War, and of the Navy, the Postmaster-General, and the Attorney-General. Each presides, under the general supervision of the President, over the department from which he derives his title; and each receives a salary of eight thousand dollars a-year. They are nominated to the national Senate by the President, and if that body confirms the nominations, they receive from the President their commissions. The President may at any time suspend them from their functions; but they cannot, under the existing law, be permanently removed, excepting by and with the consent of the Senate. They have the selection of the inferior officers employed in their respective departments, and may appoint and remove them at will; being responsible to the President for the efficient conduct of the public service, it is but just that they should have control over their assistants. They perform the double

function of administrating the departments and of acting as the intimate advisers of the President on matters of general policy. The members of the Cabinet do not sit in either house of Congress; all, excepting the Secretary of the Treasury, make their annual reports to the President; the Secretary of the Treasury makes his directly to Congress. The office of SECRETARY OF STATE corresponds in many respects with that of the English Secretary for Foreign Affairs. He is charged with the conduct of all negotiations and communications with foreign powers; with instructing and supervising the American diplomatic and consular service; and with the official business with the envoys of foreign nations resident in the United States. He is also the keeper of the seal of the United States, and to him is confided the duty of affixing the seal to all commissions of officers in the civil service, and other public acts, under the direction of the President. He countersigns the President's proclamations, these being issued from his department. He receives and preserves in the State archives the enrolled Acts of Congress, and is the official keeper of the original Constitution of the United States (which is open, on application, to the visitor's inspection) and of all treaties and conventions. The Secretaryship of State, although legally placed on an equality with the rest of the Cabinet, is regarded as the highest and most dignified Cabinet office. It has not seldom occurred that the President has appointed one of his chief com-

petitors for the presidential nomination, to this post. Such was the case when President Buchanan appointed Lewis Cass, and when President Lincoln appointed William H. Seward, Secretary of State; both of these had been rivals of the successful aspirant in the nominating party conventions. Indeed, President Lincoln not only appointed Mr. Seward to his Cabinet, but also two other rivals for the Republican nomination—Mr. Chase (now Chief-Justice) taking the Secretaryship of the Treasury, and Mr. Cameron that of War. The Secretary of State is often called the “Premier,” though there is no analogy between his office and that of the English or French Premier; it simply implies that the Secretary is the senior officer of the Cabinet.

In the administration of his department, the Secretary of State is provided with two assistant Secretaries, a chief clerk, and statistical, disbursing, diplomatic, consular, translating, rolls, commission and pardon, and passport clerks. Pardons are granted by the President through this Minister; and passports are issued under his seal and signature. From what has been said, it will be seen that the American Secretary of State performs functions which are confided to three Ministers of the English Crown. By conducting relations with foreign states, he exercises duties similar to those of the English Secretary for Foreign Affairs; by his custody of the seal, he answers in this respect to the Lord Chancellor; and by his being the medium through whom pardons are granted, he is intrusted

with a function performed in England by the Home Secretary.

The United States diplomatic and consular service comprises four diplomatic grades—those of envoy-extraordinary and minister-plenipotentiary, minister-resident, secretary of legation, and assistant secretary of legation; and six consular grades—those of consul-general, consul, commercial agent, vice-consul, deputy-consul, and consular agent. An ambassador being an envoy from one sovereign to another, that grade is unknown in the service of the Republic. There is as yet no competitive examination of the candidates for the foreign missions and consulates; the probability is, however, that such examinations will be instituted. The envoys and consuls are mostly appointed upon the recommendations of Senators and Representatives; and there is no organised system by which promotions in this service take place. The envoys to the principal courts—those of England, France, Prussia, Austria, Italy, and Russia—are selected from among the most eminent statesmen, scholars, and literati of the land; indeed, the mission to England is by many regarded as the most honourable office in the gift of the President; and men who have occupied seats in the Cabinet, and in the national Senate, regard this mission as a high honour. More than one American minister to England has returned to his own country to rise to the presidential chair. Presidents John Adams, John Quincy Adams (his son), Van Buren,

and Buchanan had all represented the United States in London. Mr. Dallas was appointed minister to England after he had occupied the second office in the nation, the Vice-Presidency. Minister Rush became Secretary of the Treasury soon after his return; and Minister Stevenson had already long been Speaker of the House of Representatives. The United States has also freely recognised high literary merit in its diplomatic appointments. George Bancroft, the historian of the Republic, was minister to England, and is now minister at Berlin; Mr. Motley has occupied the legations at Vienna and London; George P. Marsh, the first of American students of language, is envoy at Florence; Elihu Burritt, the "learned blacksmith," was consul at Birmingham; Nathaniel Hawthorne was consul at Liverpool; and many other cases of a similar kind might be cited. While the higher missions are filled by men of this character—men who may compare with the graduates of the more rigid system of European diplomacy—the lesser missions and consulates are mostly filled by congressional recommendation; and although experience in official duty may not always be thus secured, the selections are influenced to a large degree by the ability and culture of the candidate. Members of Congress, as coming from the different sections of the land, are more capable, perhaps, of judging of qualifications than those who can have no personal acquaintance with the candidates; and although they often recommend men as a reward for some political

service, past or expected, the consular corps of the United States, as a whole, performs its duty well.

The ministers and consuls generally have no expectations of promotion, nor even of a life retention of their offices. The larger part of the *personnel* of both services is usually changed at the accession of each new President. The salaries of the diplomatic and consular corps vary widely, according to the importance of the posts. Those of the envoys to London and Paris are each 17,500 dollars; those of the envoys to St. Petersburg, Berlin, Vienna, Florence, &c. are 12,000 dollars; those of the second diplomatic grade, ministers-resident, are mostly 7,500 dollars. The principal secretaries of legation receive, on the average, 1,800 dollars; the assistant secretaries, 1,500 dollars. No outfits are now provided by the nation, either for envoys or consuls; neither are there any retiring pensions.

The salaries of consuls vary from 7,500 to 1,000 dollars. A large majority of the consuls receive salaries, but there are some who are not salaried; and these rely upon official fees for the payment of their services. It is a rule that salaried consuls may not engage in commerce; those not salaried may. The representatives of the United States abroad are forbidden to wear any distinctive uniform or costume: they appear at court and official receptions, if at all, in plain black; but if they possess a military rank, they are permitted to wear the military dress.

The SECRETARY OF THE TREASURY is intrusted with

the financial administration of the Government. It is his duty to execute all laws relating to revenue and expenditure; to collect, through the medium of custom-houses, the duties on foreign imports, and, by the internal-revenue bureau, the home taxes; to have custody of the national treasure, and authorise its expenditure according to law; to execute all statutes regulating commerce, navigation, the coast-survey, the lighthouses, the marine hospitals, and the custom-houses. Since the close of the civil war, the Secretary of the Treasury has become practically the most important member of the Cabinet; for the United States found themselves, in 1865, saddled with a debt of 3,300,000,000 dollars. It was a first necessity to reduce the burden; and this depended to a great extent upon the efficiency and honesty with which the revenue was collected, the prudence with which the public funds were managed, and the economy and wisdom of the Treasury. The American financial Secretary differs from the English Chancellor of the Exchequer in that he does not sit as a member of the national legislature, and does not present a "budget." In his annual report to Congress, he makes what recommendations he sees fit with reference to the future revenue; but such report is not presented to Congress as a distinct government measure; that body takes the financial policy of the government into its own hands. The Chancellor of the Exchequer initiates a financial policy; the American Secretary of the Treasury only executes the financial

policy ordained by Congress. Under the Secretary of the Treasury are the following principal subordinates, whose duties may mostly be inferred from their titles: two comptrollers of accounts; a commissioner of the customs; six auditors (charged each with the accounts of one of the departments); a Treasurer (who is the keeper of the public moneys, receiving them, and disbursing them on warrants drawn by the Secretary of the Treasury and the Postmaster-General); a register, or keeper of records; a solicitor, or legal adviser of the department; a comptroller of the currency; a commissioner of internal revenue; an architect; and the collectors of customs at the different ports.

The President is, by virtue of his office, commander-in-chief of the armies and navies of the United States: these two departments he administers through the Secretaries of War and of the Navy.

These secretaries perform duties not wholly dissimilar to those intrusted in England to the War Minister and the First Lord of the Admiralty.

The SECRETARY OF WAR superintends all matters regarding the army and the national defences; all commissions are countersigned by him; he directs, under the President, the movements of troops, and attends to their payment and maintenance. The bureaux of the General commanding-in-chief, of the Adjutant, Quartermaster, Paymaster, Commissary, and Surgeon-generals, of the Ordnance, Engineering, and Topography, are under his general management. The General

commanding-in-chief has his head-quarters at Washington, in the building of the War Department; he is quite subordinate to the orders of the Secretary of War, as the organ of the President; and under those orders he directs the movements of the army, the recruiting service, and the military discipline, and enforces the army regulations. It may here be remarked that the exigences of the state of affairs existing at the South during and after the war demanded the formation of certain extraordinary bureaux. The Bureau of refugees, freedmen, and abandoned lands, established in 1865, was devoted to remedying the disorders existing in the South consequent upon the long and disastrous contest, and the immense social change involved in the extinction of slavery. It was charged with the protection, education, and employment of the poor negroes freed from their ancient thralldom; with collecting the moneys due to soldiers and sailors; with the management of the lands, in town and country, abandoned, confiscated, or captured; with the distribution of certain public lands to the freedmen; with supplying relief to the destitute of every class in the South; and with the establishment and superintendence of schools.* This bureau was placed in charge of army officers, and under the supervision of the Secretary of War. Its practical good works may be judged from the fact that,

* In 1868 this bureau had established and put in operation throughout the South no less than 1,500 ordinary schools, with 1,700 teachers and 82,000 pupils; besides 772 Sunday-schools, with 2,000 teachers and 57,000 pupils; and 40 industrial schools.

for a period of four months, according to a report, "corn and meat were distributed to 58,343 persons daily."

To return to the army. The regular grades in the American military service before the late war were, Major-generals, Brigadier-generals, Colonels, Lieutenant-colonels, Majors, Captains, Lieutenants, Sergeants, Corporals, and Privates. In only two instances, before 1861, was a rank higher than that of Major-general conferred, and these were conferred by special acts of Congress. Washington and General Scott were thus created Lieutenant-general. In the course of the late civil war, Congress successively established—especially in honour of General Grant—the ranks of Lieutenant-general and General; and these are now permanently added to the regular system. When Grant became President, he resigned his commission as General; Sherman, then Lieutenant-general, became General; and Sheridan was made Lieutenant-general. But let it be noted that these did not rise to the rank stated as a matter of course, in the order of seniority; for the Lieutenant-general and General are nominated by the President to the Senate, and, if confirmed, are commissioned. There is no purchase-system in the American army.

The military forces of the United States—its regular standing army—amounted, in 1860, to about fourteen thousand men. The Rebellion breaking out, President Lincoln from time to time called for Volunteers by proclamation; and when the war closed, the total of

soldiers who had served the Union appearing in the Adjutant-general's records was over two millions and a half. The standing army now kept up amounts to about fifty thousand men ; a large portion of this force is stationed at the South to maintain order, and in the far West to defend advancing, and as yet sparsely settled civilisation, from the depredations of the Indian tribes.

The SECRETARY OF THE NAVY has the same supervision over the national marine that the Secretary of War has over the army. He controls the bureaux of Navy-yards and Docks, Navigation, Ordnance, Construction and Repair, Equipment and Recruiting, Steam-engineering, Provisions and Clothing, and Surgery. Before the war the naval force consisted of forty-one men-of-war ; during the war this was very largely increased both by purchase and by home construction ; and since the war the marine has been reduced to two hundred and six vessels of all kinds, and about seventeen hundred guns. The grades in the navy before the rebellion were, Commodore, Captain, Commander, Lieutenant-commander, Lieutenant, Midshipman, Sailor, and Marine. During the contest the grades of Admiral, Vice-Admiral, and Rear-Admiral were added by Congress to this service, as were those of General and Lieutenant-general to the army. There are one Admiral (now Farragut), one Vice-Admiral, and ten Rear-Admirals.

The departments already described were established early in the history of the Government ; the Department

of the Interior was instituted so recently as 1849. The SECRETARY OF THE INTERIOR—corresponding in some respects to the English Home Secretary—has charge of the public lands, a most important function in America, when the extent of the public domain still unoccupied is considered; in this capacity he manages—through the Commissioner of the Land office—the survey, care, sale, and apportionment of these lands. He is intrusted with the pension bureau, which likewise has an immediate chief, and which regulates the granting of pensions for military and naval service—the only pensions, by the way, granted by the United States. He presides over the relations of the nation with the Indian tribes. He is charged with the bureau of patents, and all matters connected with inventions. He has the management of the mines, the decennial census, the public institutions of the District of Columbia, and the accounts of United-States attorneys and marshals, and clerks of court. The public lands will be considered when the subject of emigration is reached. The Indian bureau is, as its name implies, devoted to negotiating with the Indians, to removing the causes of difficulty between them and the settlers in the West, and to the endeavour to bring them within the pale of civilisation. The importance of the patent office may be seen in the statement that, during 1868 there were more than twenty thousand applications for patents, of which about sixteen thousand were granted. In contrasting the American with

the English departments, especially the Interior with the Home Office, it must not be forgotten that all local matters—such, for instance, as internal improvements—are in America controlled by the individual states; while in England the internal improvements and similar matters are in the province of the Imperial government. There is one exception to this rule in America; for the United States make the improvements on rivers flowing through several states, and also on all harbours. In 1862 the Department of Agriculture, and in 1867 the Department of Education, were established. Their chiefs are not members of the Cabinet, but are commissioners acting under the President. The purpose of the Department of Agriculture is to obtain and spread among the people valuable information respecting husbandry; to procure and distribute through the country new and valuable seeds and plants; to make practical and scientific experiments, and publish their results; and to collect books and correspondence on agricultural subjects. An experimental farm is attached to the department, as well as chemical laboratories, museums, and archives open to the access of the public. All agricultural information and seeds are furnished to any applicant who chooses to request them. The Department of Education will come more properly under the head of public instruction.

The functions of the POSTMASTER-GENERAL may be inferred from his title. He has charge of all the internal and foreign postal arrangements. He sits in

the Cabinet as the equal of the Secretaries. Under him are the bureaux charged with the superintendence of the various branches of the postal service—the appointment, contract, inspection, and finance offices. The expenditure in the American postal service somewhat exceeds the receipts.

The American ATTORNEY-GENERAL differs widely from the English officer of the same name. He has a seat in the Cabinet, and ranks with the Secretaries of the great departments. His principal duty is to advise the President and the Cabinet ministers on the legal points arising in the course of the public business. He also examines the titles of all lands purchased for any purpose by the government; receives applications for pardon, and for appointment to offices in the United States courts; conducts on behalf of the United States all suits in the Supreme Court in which the government is concerned; and supervises suits arising in any of the departments. He has two assistants and a clerk; these constitute the whole staff of his office.

The public edifices in Washington, like those in London, are not uniform either in style of architecture or in size. They are not grouped together in a single quarter of the town; some are at one end of it, some in its centre, and some at the opposite end. The Treasury is a long building three storeys high, comprising a central section of sandstone painted white about five hundred feet long, and two wings of granite, recently added, each two hundred feet long. It has

in front a row of Corinthian columns extending from wing to wing, which support the roof of a spacious portico, reached by broad flights of steps; and it stands at the head of the wide avenue leading from the Capitol, seen from which it is an imposing structure. The former State department, which stood just north of the Treasury, has been demolished to give place to one of the new Treasury wings just described; it was as small and modest as the Treasury is spacious, presenting much the appearance of an old-fashioned gentleman's residence. Until the new State department is built, the Secretary and his subordinates occupy a building a little way out of town. The White House is west of the Treasury, and beyond it stand the War and Navy departments, buildings very like each other, substantial, built of brick painted brown, and unadorned. The department of the Interior, which, next to the Capitol, is the most imposing of the public edifices, is situated near the centre of the town, about midway between the Capitol and the Treasury. It comprises an immense quadrangle occupying two squares, and consisting of one side built of sandstone, and the other three of beautiful white marble; it is adorned by lofty peristyles and façades and fluted Corinthian columns; and on three sides broad flights of steps lead up to high wide porticoes, reminding one much of the ancient Parthenon, and of the Madeleine at Paris. The Post-office department stands near that of the Interior, is wholly marble, rectangular, somewhat ornate, and mas-

sive. New edifices for the State, War, and Navy departments will doubtless soon be constructed, and ere long Washington will, in its public structures, rival, if not surpass, those of the more ancient capitals.

The members of the Cabinet are wont to mingle freely in the society of Washington, and consider it incumbent on them to imitate the President in extending hospitality to the people. The ladies of the ministers hold weekly receptions, and their drawing-rooms are open to anyone who may choose to call. During the winter and on New-Year's-day, public receptions take place at the residences of the Cabinet members, and on these occasions elegant entertainments are provided for the guests. These are more often *soirées* for chatting and promenading; sometimes there is also dancing and music. They are full-dress, and in them, as in the President's levees, the political and literary celebrities of the capital democratically mingle with the *nouveaux riches*, and the aspiring wives and daughters of government clerks. The invitations include, in addition to the other Cabinet ministers, high officials, and members of Congress, those ladies and gentlemen who have previously called on the ministers' ladies.

CHAPTER IV.

CONGRESS : *The Senate and House of Representatives*
—*The powers and privileges of Congress—The elec-*
tion of Senators and Representatives.

CONGRESS—the Legislative estate—is, like the British Parliament, divided into two Houses.

The SENATE, the upper House, is composed of two Senators from each state, without regard to population. Delaware, with a population of about 112,000, has two Senators, as well as New York, with a population of 5,000,000. The states, being equal as bodies politic, are entitled to an equal representation in the Senate. The Senators are not chosen directly by the people, but by the legislatures of the several states. Their term of office is six years. No one can sit as Senator who is under thirty years of age, who has not been a citizen of the United States for nine years, and who is not an inhabitant of the state for which he is chosen. The Senators are divided into three classes, so that one-third retires at the end of each Congress of two years. The Senate is thus a perpetual body, and, two-thirds surviving each Congress, is able to proceed continuously with the public business. It has already been mentioned that the Vice-President of the United States is

President of the Senate; and that the Senators choose one of their own number to act as President *pro tempore* during the Vice-President's absence. The Vice-President can only vote when the Senate is equally divided. If any senatorial vacancy occurs during the recess of the legislature of a state, the Governor of the state can temporarily appoint a Senator until the next meeting of the legislature, which then fills the vacancy by election. The Senate has all the legislative powers excepting that of originating bills for raising revenue; such bills must originate in the lower House. Besides its legislative functions, the Senate possesses certain executive and judicial powers. It confirms or rejects all the nominations of public officers made by the President; without its consent the President's commission of appointment to office can only be temporary. No treaty or convention with a foreign power can be ratified without the approval of two-thirds of the Senate. All impeachments are tried by the Senate sitting as a "high court." The present number of Senators, including those of all the states now in existence, is seventy-four.

The HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES corresponds, in the American system, to the House of Commons. It is the popular and lower branch of Congress, and its members are elected directly by the people. The term of office for members of the House is during one Congress, that is, two years; this House is therefore wholly renewed by election every alternate year. The Representatives are apportioned among the states according

to population. One representative is chosen for about every one hundred and twenty-seven thousand inhabitants, and every state is entitled to at least one member. Every ten years, when the decennial census is completed, a new distribution of congressional districts is made throughout the nation. To be eligible as a representative one must be twenty-five years of age, an inhabitant of the state in which he is chosen, and he must have been a citizen for seven years. The House, at the beginning of each Congress, chooses its own Speaker and other officers; it has the sole power of impeachment. In the event of a vacancy, a new election is ordered by the Governor of the state in which the vacancy occurs, he having no power, in this case, to fill it. Each organised territory not yet made a state is entitled to one "delegate" to Congress, who may speak, but not vote. The present number of the Representatives is two hundred and forty-three.

Congress must meet at least once a year. Its time of meeting is determined by its own will, and is now appointed for the first Monday in December. Every alternate year Congress dissolves on the fourth of March, when the term of a new Congress commences; the intermediate year it sits until both Houses agree by joint resolution upon a time of adjournment. These are called respectively the "short" and the "long" sessions; the long session usually continues until July. It is to be observed, that while the English House of Commons can be prorogued or dissolved by the royal

prerogative, the American Congress is not subjected to this uncertainty of duration ; it terminates its existence at a time absolutely fixed, and it closes the alternate session at its own will ; no power can abridge its duration, no power except its own can shorten the “long” session. Each House is made the judge of the election and the qualifications of its own members ; a majority constitutes a quorum capable of transacting business ; but a smaller number may so far keep the session continuous as to adjourn from day to day, and compel the attendance of absent members. Each House has also the right to make its own rules of proceeding, may punish its members for disorderly conduct, and by a two-thirds vote may expel a member. The present salary of Senators and Representatives is five thousand dollars (1,000*l.*) a-year, and they are entitled to mileage, that is, to be paid for travelling expenses, at the rate of twenty cents (tenpence) a mile, for the distance over which they travel in going from their residences to Washington, and returning thither. For each day’s unexcused absence eight dollars is deducted from the member’s salary. The Speaker has double the salary of the members. Neither House can, during the session, adjourn for more than three days at a time without the consent of the other House, nor can it adjourn to any other place. The members of both are exempted from arrest in all cases, excepting for treason, felony, and breach of the peace, while attending the session, and they are not responsible outside of Con-

gress for any speeches there delivered. No Senator or Representative can hold any civil office which has been created during the time for which he was elected, or any office the salary of which has been increased during that period.

The powers of Congress are: to vote and collect all taxes and duties for the United States; to provide for the general defence; to borrow money on the national credit; to regulate commerce with foreign nations, among the several states, and with the Indians; to establish laws of naturalisation and uniform laws of bankruptcy; to coin money, regulate its value, and fix weights and measures; to establish post-offices and post-roads; to make patent laws, and secure the rights of inventors and authors; to institute United States courts; to define and punish piracies, and breaches of the law of nations; to declare war, and grant letters of marque and reprisal; to raise and maintain national forces and a navy; to provide for calling forth the militia of the states to suppress insurrections and resist invasions; to exercise exclusive powers over all the domain of the Republic not organised into self-governing states; and to make all laws and regulations for executing the powers confided to it as the national Legislature. All powers not expressly vested in the United States government by the Constitution belong to the local governments of the several states.

To Congress, in addition to the prerogatives already stated, is given the authority to designate the time and

manner in which the state legislatures shall choose the Senators; and by a recent act the election is ordered to take place as follows. Each branch of the legislature (for the state legislatures consist, as does Congress, of two Houses) must proceed to the election of a Senator, when a vacancy is about to occur, on the second Tuesday after the session opens; each, then, votes *viva voce*, in separate session, for a Senator. The next day the two branches meet in joint session, and the votes of the preceding day are announced. If a candidate has received a majority of the votes of each branch, the election is complete; if not, both branches, in joint session, proceed to a joint *viva-voce* vote; and the person receiving a majority of all the votes so cast—provided there is present a majority of each branch—is chosen Senator. Should an election not then take place, the branches must continue to meet in joint session day after day, and must take at least one vote for Senator every day until a choice is made. It is not seldom the case that, when a state legislature is to be chosen, upon which will devolve the duty to elect a Senator, the issue of the legislative election is made before the people, whether this or that man shall receive the vote of the members of the local body for Senator. Candidates for the legislature are “pledged” to vote for this or that candidate for Senator; and thus the election of Senator comes practically into the hands of the people. This was the case in a memorable campaign which took place some years ago in the state of Illi-

nois, a campaign to which the nation owed the subsequent choice of Abraham Lincoln as President. Stephen A. Douglas, the leader of the Democrats, had long sat in the Senate, representing Illinois. His term of office approached its close: he and his party were anxious that he should be reelected for another six years; but the state was almost evenly divided between the two parties. The Republicans were anxious to defeat Douglas, and to send one of their own party to the Senate in his place. It was therefore resolved, on both sides, that the state should be "stumped" by Douglas, and by Abraham Lincoln his competitor: the candidates for the legislature were pledged, the Democrats to vote for Douglas, and the Republicans for Lincoln. The result was one of the most hotly-contested campaigns in the history of American politics. Both Douglas and Lincoln were eloquent and popular, and exerted themselves to the utmost; and when the legislature met, there was a clear division between the adherents of these two names. Douglas won by a small majority; but Lincoln, by his frank noble bearing, his eloquence, and his clear and telling logic, secured by this campaign a greater prize than the senatorship; for by it he obtained the Republican nomination, and his election to the executive chair.

The time of electing the members of the House of Representatives varies in the different states. In some they are elected in the spring; in others, in the autumn preceding the assembling of a new Congress; in a few

the elections take place as long beforehand as the autumn of the year preceding. The candidates for Congress—for the Americans, when they speak of “members of Congress” and “congressional elections” mean the House of Representatives and its members, as “Parliament” in England is often used to mean the House of Commons only—are nominated by party conventions which meet in the several districts; these conventions being composed of delegates chosen by the “ward” or “town” meetings before referred to. It is very rarely that there are more than two rival candidates for Congress—those duly nominated by the conventions of the two great parties. Independent candidates stand little chance, and are not encouraged by the American system of politics. There is another important difference between American and English elections. In England, as often as not, the candidate is not a resident of the county or borough for which he stands, or its neighbourhood; in America, it is an invariable rule that the candidate resides in the constituency which he solicits. Some of the states have a law compelling him to be such a resident; but latterly a question has arisen whether it is in the power of a state to make such a law, the Constitution having defined the eligibility of the representative, and having only enjoined that he should be an inhabitant of the *state* in which he is chosen; and this question has not as yet been authoritatively settled. Another difference between the elections in the two countries lies in the matter of expense.

The candidates in America are not obliged to defray any of the costs of the elections whatever. I have seen returns of amounts expended by a single candidate for Parliament which would cover the cost of a presidential election. The official costs are paid in America by the town and city governments; and the costs of electioneering, paying speakers, renting rooms, printing, and so on, are paid by voluntary subscriptions raised by the various party organisations. The expenses incurred in the voting-rooms, the superintendence of the balloting, the hire of clerks, and so on, are very slight; and neither candidate nor citizen need, unless inclined, contribute to the electioneering costs. The total average cost of an election for member of Congress does not probably exceed 1,000 dollars (200*l.*). It would be too much to say that none of the candidates do, as a fact, spend money in the elections; for bribery, although by no means prevalent, is occasionally resorted to in America; but they are under no necessity to do so. It is quite possible for poor men to be elected to Congress; and many, perhaps the majority, of the members are men of very moderate means. The expenses of those candidates who do spend in America are very trifling compared with those of the English candidate, who, as a rule, must either be lavish, or lose all hope of success. It follows that the American Congress is far from being the rich assembly which the House of Commons is; and the wisdom of paying salaries to the former body, thus giving independence to those who

do not have it by private fortune, is apparent. A great deal of the work done in an American election is voluntary. Committees, canvassers, orators often exert themselves without payment, either out of zeal for party, or inspired by the hope of political profit.

CHAPTER V.

THE CAPITOL : *The hall of the House of Representatives, and the proceedings therein—Congressional customs.*

THE customs and mode of proceeding in Congress are in so many respects different from those of the English Parliament, that it cannot but be interesting to note them. Washington, as the time for the assembling of Congress approaches, becomes the crowded and buzzing centre of hosts of politicians from every section of the Republic. The hotels begin to fill with office-seekers, correspondents, and the great army of the "lobby;" with the "friends" of newly-elected members, the oracles of western villages, and the needy claimants on congressional justice or bounty. The boarding-houses—Washington is full of them—and the "family hotels" are put in trim for the harvest; and Congress men, with means more limited than their ambition, have arrived to find residences for the season. The first Monday in December comes, and the spacious Capitol is the centre towards which the human streams pouring from every part of the town converge. The corridors, halls, galleries are soon full of excited beings: ladies have flocked up to see the Speaker elected and

the session begin ; politicians have gathered to intrigue for this or that man or measure ; the members are there in force, shaking hands and welcoming each other to Washington, or collected in little knots to discuss the events of the day, or to make combinations in the approaching election of officers. The issue of the latter event is, however, usually a foregone conclusion. The operations of the rival parties in Congress are governed, as they are in the elections, by regular party organisations, composed of the members of Congress, by which the will of the majority of the party is ascertained and carried out. The course of a party in Congress is determined by what are called "caucuses." These are meetings of the members—sometimes of only one House, sometimes of both Houses—who agree in political opinion. They are held privately : discussions take place as to the party policy ; the party nominations are made for the officers of the two Houses ; and a majority of the caucus decides upon both, the minority considering it a matter of fidelity to their party to follow the lead thus indicated, and afterwards to vote in the House as the majority has decreed. Thus the power of directing party policy, which seems to rest to a large degree in England, on the one hand with the Prime Minister, and on the other with the leader of the Opposition, rests in America with the party majority of the members of each House. The candidates of each party for Speaker, clerk, doorkeepers, and so on, are nominated just before the meeting of Congress, in these prelimi-

nary caucuses ; and as the candidates of the dominant party are certain to be chosen, the curiosity as to who are to be the officers is directed to its caucus.

The Capitol, which contains the chambers of the two Houses of Congress, is perhaps the stateliest edifice in America, and is fully worthy of its high use and name. Within the past ten years extensive additions have been made to it, so that it is now a very different building from that described in the older books of travel. Its site is one of the finest that can be imagined. It stands on the crest of a high sloping hill, which overlooks the whole city, and from which the broad and winding Potomac, and the pleasant hilly Virginian landscape beyond, may be seen for miles. It is approached by a stone walk which passes through a delightfully umbrageous park, enriched by pretty plots of flowers, fountains, and green terraces rising one above the other, and ascending gradually to the edifice itself. Broad flights of steps, shaded by trees, lead up to the principal terrace from which the Capitol is entered. . The structure contains a central building of sandstone painted white, and two vast, elaborately-adorned wings of white marble, the latter having been added within a few years. It consists of a basement, a main story, and a high attic ; its rear, which is the side approached from the town, is comparatively plain and massive in appearance ; the front is, on the contrary, grand and imposing. Rising from the central building is a lofty, magnificent dome, which may be

seen for miles as you approach Washington by rail. This dome is constructed of cast-iron, the weight of the iron used upon it being over eight millions of pounds. Its lower section is a gallery supported by ornate pillars; the second is a massive and richly-ornamented gallery of iron; the sloping roof, likewise of iron, has a series of windows—this is surmounted by a circular and pillared structure not unlike the temple of Vesta; and rising above the whole is a colossal bronze statue of Freedom, nineteen and a half feet high, and weighing nearly fifteen thousand pounds.

The central, or original, building is three hundred and fifty-two feet long, and one hundred and twenty-one deep; the recently-added marble wings are each one hundred and forty-two feet long and two hundred and thirty-eight deep. The whole length of the Capitol from end to end, including the connecting corridors, is somewhat over seven hundred feet; the area covered by the Capitol is 153,000 square feet. The central building and wings are approached from the east by very broad and high flights of steps which lead to spacious porticoes, the roofs of which are supported by lofty monolith Corinthian columns; the columns in the main portico are twenty-four, and those of each of the wings twenty-two. The façades supported by the columns are adorned by handsome and symbolical bas-reliefs; on two projections from the central portico stand two colossal sculptures, one of Columbus with an Indian crouching at his side, the other illustrative of the perils of a back-

woodsman's life. Statues of "Peace" and "War" adorn the interior of the central portico, and in the grounds immediately before the east front is a sitting statue of Washington in Roman costume. At the sides of the wings, as well as in front, there are noble porticoes supported by Corinthian pillars. On the whole, the exterior view of the edifice is most majestic; its pure white marble, its many columns, fluted, and their capitals richly sculptured, its towering dome, its noble façades, and its vast extent, produce an effect perhaps not less imposing than that of the classic structures of ancient Greece. Entering the building on its west side, and passing through several unadorned corridors and up two flights of steps, you find yourself in an immense circular room, dome-roofed, and ornamented by frescoes, large paintings of historical scenes, and here and there by historical bas-reliefs. This is called, from its shape, the "Rotunda." Two doors, directly opposite each other, lead from the Rotunda respectively to the chamber of the House of Representatives and that of the Senate; these chambers are in the two new wings at either end of the Capitol.

The hall of the lower House is reached by passing through the old hall, formerly used by that body. Thence you enter a light elegant corridor, and at once find yourself in the spacious lobby which extends around the chamber. Here, on the morning of the meeting of Congress, you will find the excited crowd already described, increasing in numbers and in vivacity every

moment. Ascend the wide staircases, where you are confronted by historical frescoes and illuminated windows, and enter the galleries. Most unlike the galleries of the House of Commons do you find them. You are at perfect liberty to enter them without card or order, and there is room enough for all. The hall is rectangular, and much larger, lighter, and more favourable for speaking and hearing, than the Commons. The galleries are broad and spacious; they will seat from fifteen hundred to two thousand people; they are provided with benches cushioned on seat and back, and placed one above the other as in a theatre. Every seat in the body of the House may be distinctly seen from every part of the gallery, and there is no screen, as in the Commons, to obstruct the ladies' vision. One side of the galleries is reserved for ladies and their gentlemen escorts; another is reserved for the diplomatic corps; a small space is secured to "messieurs of the press;" the rest is thrown open to all, without distinction, who choose to come. The roof of the chamber is richly decorated, its long beams, which cross each other at right angles, being carved and gilded, and the broad square panes between them painted with appropriate devices. The high desk of the Speaker at once attracts the stranger's eye. It is of sculptured white marble, approached by marble steps on either side. Behind this is the Speaker's ample *fautcuil*. Just below the Speaker's desk, and still elevated from the floor of the House, is the desk of the clerks and

secretaries, also of marble. The House of Commons, it is well known, contains for the seats of its members straight benches running parallel with the wall on either side. The American Representatives' chamber is very differently arranged. Here are semicircular rows of *desks*, the desk of each member being quite separated from the rest by little aisles converging to the space in front of the Speaker. These semicircles rise one behind the other, the foremost being short and the rear semicircle extending nearly around the chamber. Each member's desk is provided with writing materials, drawers, and shelves underneath for books and papers; both the desks and the chairs are very ornate, richly carved, and luxurious. Behind the rear semicircle of desks is a corridor supplied with sofas, where members can walk up and down, or sit and chat with those who, not being members, are privileged to go upon "the floor." Doors at intervals lead from this corridor into spacious rooms, where every comfort and convenience are provided for the members; here are lavatories and dressing-rooms, cloak-rooms and smoking-rooms, lavishly furnished. On either hand of the Speaker, on the floor of the House, are desks for the sergeant-at-arms and the doorkeeper.

From the corridor behind the Speaker's chair, doors lead to certain luxuriously furnished apartments which are devoted to the use of the Speaker and other dignitaries.

The time for organising the House arrived, the principal clerk of the last Congress, standing at the clerk's desk, calls the new body to order. The verification of the members' credentials follows; then comes the election of a Speaker. This is the simplest matter possible. The clerk of the old House presides while it is proceeding. The members have taken their seats; the galleries are filled with elegantly dressed ladies, interested envoys of foreign States, and multitudes of spectators of the unlimited obscure. The candidates for Speaker, already designated in the caucuses, are put in nomination by leading men on each side. Then the roll of the members is called from the clerk's desk, each member, as his name is called, giving the name of the candidate for whom he votes. An election having been made, the new Speaker is conducted by his defeated competitor to the chair; the oath is administered to him by the senior member present, that is, the member who has been longest in Congress; and the ceremony ends with a short address of thanks from the just-inducted presiding officer. In the same manner the clerk of the House, the sergeant-at-arms, the door-keeper, the postmaster of the House, the chaplain, the librarian, and other officers are chosen. The elections completed, the House adjourns, ready to begin business the next day. The hour of assembling for both Houses is at noon, and the daily session of each usually lasts till between three and four. The fashionable dinner hour in Washington is from five to six-

Toward the close of the annual session, however, the pressure of business—for Congress, not unlike many individuals, is fain to put off the hardest work till the last moment—compels them to meet earlier and sit later; and during the last week of the session they sit often from ten in the morning, all night, with a short recess early in the evening. The House of Representatives is an orderly body, and preserves—excepting on exciting occasions, when there is confusion enough—for so large an assembly, a marked decorum. The daily session always opens, in both Houses, with a prayer from the chaplain, a clergyman elected by the body for this purpose. The members never sit with their hats on; cheering or other signs of approbation or disapproval are very rarely heard; and although the dull speakers are not very attentively listened to, attempts to groan them down are seldom made. They converse and move about freely during the sitting, write their letters or read the papers at their desks; and when an interesting speaker is on his feet, they group around him, placing their chairs close together in front of him, and listen with deep attention. You will not fail to observe on the steps of the Speaker's desk some neatly-dressed boys, twelve or fourteen years old, who, when a member raps on his desk, emulate each other in the effort to get to him first. Those are called "pages;" it is their duty to do such errands for members as bringing glasses of water, posting letters, carrying notes, and sometimes bringing them the snuff-box,

which is provided for the members' use. The method which exists in the House of Commons of taking "divisions" on important questions, by going into separate lobbies, is not usually adopted in Congress. The ordinary modes of voting are, to put the question to the House by calling on those in favour of the motion or reading to say "Aye," and those opposed, "No." If the Speaker decides that "the Ayes have it," and any member doubts the correctness of this decision, he may call for the "Ayes and Noes;" and if he is supported in this by one-fifth of the members present, the Ayes and Noes are called. The Ayes and Noes are simply the roll-call of the House, each member shouting "Aye" or "No," when his name is called, and the Speaker announces the numbers. The Ayes and Noes are often demanded repeatedly by the minority, so as to gain time or weary the majority. Sometimes the vote is taken by the Speaker calling on all those in favour of the motion to rise and be counted; he himself counts them, and in the same way those of a contrary mind are counted. When a division does occur, it is taken for the purpose of counting the members to see if a quorum is present; the members do not go out of the House and into separate lobbies, as in England, neither are the galleries cleared. The division is had in the open space in front of the Speaker's desk; here stand the tellers named by the Speaker, while the members file in procession between them.

In England, bills of importance are usually drawn

and presented to Parliament by the Ministers ; a day is appointed for the first reading, one for the second reading, and so on ; and the Committee of the whole House is, in ordinary cases, the only committee which considers the measure. The method of doing business in Congress is totally different. No Ministers sit in either House, and bills do not proceed from the Executive. The manner of proceeding is this : all the members of each body are divided into certain *standing* or permanent *committees*, some six or eight members being apportioned to each committee, and many of the members sitting on several committees. Each of these permanent committees is intrusted with the consideration of matters and measures relating to a particular subject of public policy. For instance, there is in each House a committee on foreign affairs, one on finance, on commerce, on appropriations, on military affairs, on claims, on patents, and so on. These committees are selected, in the House of Representatives, by the Speaker ; in the Senate they are elected by a vote of the Senators, the senatorial party caucuses having previously nominated them. When the reports of the Cabinet Secretaries, which accompany the President's annual Message to Congress, come before the House, they are referred by the House to the committees to whose particular subject each report is pertinent. Thus, the Secretary of the Treasury's report is referred to the committee on finance ; and that committee, after considering the report, embodies, if it

sees fit, the recommendations of the Secretary, or the contrary, regarding future financial policy, in a bill, which it presents to the House. All bills or measures presented by the members—and every member has a right to introduce bills—after being read a first and second time, are in like manner referred to the committee having special cognisance of the general subject to which the bill refers; the committee considers it, and either reports the bill itself, or another bill on the same subject, to the House, which then entertains it; or else the committee “smothers” the bill by never bringing it before the House at all. When a bill has thus been reported from a committee, the House proceeds to discuss it, and, if the majority approve, to pass it through the Committee of the whole House and its third reading.

Each committee is provided with a committee-room, luxuriously furnished and decorated, in the Capitol building. The rooms are situated in the two wings, the committees of each House in the wing where its chamber is, and mostly on the floors below and above that of the chambers. The walls and ceilings of many of them are ornamented with beautiful frescoes painted by Italian artists; these are symbolical and illustrative of the subjects with which the committees have to do. For instance, the frescoes in the room of the committee on naval affairs represent nautical subjects—Neptune, with his trident, riding the sea, or men of-war in the midst of battle; in that of the com-

mittee on agriculture, the frescoes are of cereals and implements of husbandry deftly grouped, and so on. The committees, especially the more important ones, meet in the morning, an hour or two before the session opens, and consider the business needing their attention—the bills to be examined or presented, or the reports to be made. The committee-rooms also serve as lounging-places, where members may retire from the hubbub of the chambers, receive their friends, and, if inclined, even take a refreshing nap; and, indeed, whist-parties are not wholly unknown to these cozy and quiet resorts.

Besides the committee-rooms, there are apartments devoted to document and speech-folding; each House is provided with a convenient post-office, where the congressional mails arrive and depart several times daily; there is for each an elegant restaurant; where, indeed, at very dear prices, anyone may refresh himself; in the rear is situated the vast congressional library, with more than 175,000 volumes; and there are stationery-rooms, and a great variety of other offices for the convenience of the legislators. The right of franking still exists in the United States, and is enjoyed by Senators and Representatives, the President and his Cabinet, and ex-Presidents, the latter having the privilege for life. In both Houses the members are divided according to their political creed, the Republicans sitting on the Speaker's or President's left, and the Democrats on his right.

CHAPTER VI.

THE SENATE : *The senatorial office—A view from the galleries—Society at Washington.*

THE Senate chamber is in the new wing of the Capitol, opposite to that of the House of Representatives. It much resembles the chamber of the House, but is smaller and somewhat less ostentatious. Its galleries are constructed and divided in the same manner; they are capable of holding perhaps a thousand spectators. The reporters have places just over the Vice-President's desk. The arrangement on the floor of the Senate chamber is, as in the House, semicircular; the desks are less ornate; the general appearance of the body is much more sedate and dignified. The presiding officer's desk is of polished and carved wood, raised on a high dais; on another dais, just below it, is the desk occupied by the secretary of the Senate and his assistants. There are also desks for the sergent-at-arms and doorkeeper, and there are "pages," as in the other chamber. There is a quiet dignity about the proceedings of the Senate strikingly in contrast with the hubbub of the more numerous body. A seat

in the Senate, both from the length of its term and from the traditional dignity of the office, is considered by many as preferable to a cabinet portfolio or a first-class foreign mission. Senators have often refused both, and men have retired from both in order to accept a senatorial election. The states aim to send their foremost men to the upper House, and are proud of the talents which they display there, and which reflect credit on the states themselves. The Senate is therefore far from being a receptacle for decayed politicians, or the convenient shelf upon which to lay men who are embarrassing. It is, on the contrary, the most notable arena in the land for the display of wise and ripe statesmanship, and of lofty eloquence. The Senator has arrived at the acme of his influence, and is more often in the mature prime of his energies. In the Senate he shares the legislative powers of a Representative, and divides some of the highest executive powers with the President. He may be called upon to sit as the President's judge. He retains his high place for two years longer than the President, and for four years longer than the Representative: not seldom, approving himself to the state which sends him, he remains a Senator through two or three consecutive terms. The leaders of the Senate are always regarded as possible candidates for the Executive Chair; and in a body which may be said to be made up of the sifted talent of each state, there are many who would do honour to that highest seat in the Republic. The Senate is

more calm and deliberate, more conservative in its consideration of public measures, than the House; in this respect resembling the English upper House.

From the gallery, let us observe the Senate as it appears when in session. Opposite, in the further gallery, the lady spectators, almost every one handsomely dressed, are seated; above the chair the reporters are preparing to scratch away with their wonted lightning speed; here and there, in the diplomatic gallery, a foreign envoy or *chargé* or two are listening intently. The President ascends the daïs, and the buzz of conversation ceases. The chaplain of the Senate, placing himself on the step just below the presiding officer, offers a prayer allusive of the body and its work, and perhaps touching on recent national events; the Senators stand by their desks, their heads bowed. There is a little confusion when the chaplain ceases, for there are people on the "floor" who are not entitled to remain after the opening of the session, and these are being mildly forced out of the doors by the sergeant-at-arms and his aids. The Senators have meanwhile taken their seats; the journal of the preceding day is read; and then Senators, rising successively at their desks, present the petitions, on every conceivable subject, with which they have been intrusted. You have leisure to observe the more noticeable faces, as the Senators (not wearing their hats) sit quietly at their desks: one opening his morning mail, another delving into masses of manuscripts and docu-

ments, others conversing quietly on the sofas behind the semicircle of seats. A marked face and figure are those of Charles Sumner, Senator from Massachusetts, who is, very likely, presenting a petition embodying advanced radical ideas. From the length of time he has served in the upper House, he is called "the father of the Senate," although around him are many older men. He is the leader of the more radical wing of the Republicans. Although nearly sixty, he is still handsome and scrupulously dressed. He is tall, straight, robust in frame; his luxuriant grayish hair is inclined to curl; his features are classically even; and his appearance is that of a refined and scholarly gentleman. His voice is deep-toned, and his manner of speaking, though not especially graceful, is earnest and forcible, and is aided by choice and clear language. Not far off sits Senator Fessenden of Maine, the ablest of the more moderate Republicans, and the leading practical statesman in the Senate. His figure is slight, and he appears frail in health; the expression of his face is refined and thoughtful; and a broad high forehead, the gray hair disposed carelessly above it, indicates unusual intellectual power. He speaks simply, with little or no movement, and eschewing rhetoric and all flowery graces, aims directly and clearly at the gist of his subject. He is especially at home on financial questions; and his lucid arguments and unostentatious intellectual force, sometimes relieved by a caustic parenthesis of irony, win for him an attentive hearing

whenever he rises to speak.* A youthful, almost boyish face and figure are those of Senator Sprague of Rhode Island, a millionaire manufacturer, who was Governor of his state before he was out of his twenties. He is small, somewhat foppish, with eyeglasses; his manner is impulsive and nervous. The famous "Parson" Brownlow of Tennessee—at once preacher, editor, and politician—is another of the notable senatorial faces: thin, gaunt, with high cheek-bones, resolute eye, and a true Western rudeness and boldness. The Senators are punctual and constant in their attendance; the seats are seldom, many of them, vacant; and on the occasion of a debate on some question of critical interest, the *tout-ensemble* of the chamber—the crowded galleries, the small decorous group of Senators, the distinct utterances of the orators, the Vice-President and secretaries on the dais, and the soberly yet richly ornamented hall—is one of no little interest. Neither the presiding officers nor any of the officials of the Houses of Congress wear any distinctive dress; and to an American the Speaker of the House of Commons and the Lord Chancellor in their long-flowing wigs and ample gowns are an entirely novel and curious spectacle. In the House of Representatives a single symbol of authority is used—the mace. This is the symbol

* Since this was written, America has suffered a very great loss: Senator Fessenden died in September 1869. A great and pure statesman has passed away; his place in the Senate will not easily be filled.

of the authority of the House, and the sergeant-at-arms, when arresting a member for any cause, must have it in his hand. It is a long baton surmounted by an eagle, and it is placed on the right of the Speaker's chair when that officer is presiding, being taken down when he is not in the chair. It is a frequent custom in both Houses for the presiding officers to leave the chair while the bodies are sitting. If they wish, for any reason, to be for the moment relieved from it, they may call upon any member or Senator they please to occupy it in the mean time. Over the roof of each chamber there is a small dome, and on each of these domes, when the House over which it rises is in session, a large American flag is hoisted. Thus people in the town below may always tell when the House and Senate are in session; and the worthy landladies, whose guests are Congressmen, may, by a glance towards the Capitol, know, by the flags being hauled down, when the Houses have risen, and may govern their culinary operations accordingly.

The society of Washington is naturally tinctured to a large degree with the political element. The population of the city is not far from one hundred thousand, and a very large proportion of the permanent community consists of government officials of high or modest rank. There are many thousands of clerks attached to the departments, many army and navy officers, and in the winter the city is filled with additional thousands who have come to the capital on errands of

expected profit or pleasure. There is little or no commercial enterprise; the navigation so high up the Potomac is necessarily confined within very narrow limits. That portion of the population which is not political is employed mainly in providing for that which is. Washington has no independent means of existence besides those derived from the presence of the national Government. In the summer no place could be hotter, duller, or dustier, and, excepting those who are forced to stay, it is in that season utterly deserted. In the winter, on the contrary, its society is brilliant, fashion and festivity reign paramount, and the number of people is far more than doubled. The city itself, if we except the public edifices, is by no means imposing, and is not yet, though it is rapidly becoming, worthy of its rank as the national metropolis. At the west end—in the neighbourhood of the White House—the private houses are spacious and elegant; there are pretty parks and grounds, and the vicinity wears a general air of wealth and taste. The greater part of the town, however, is built principally with two and three storey brick houses; the streets are wide and shaded, and afford a grateful relief from the summer heats. Pennsylvania Avenue, the principal street, and at least in breadth and shade a noble thoroughfare—extending in a straight line for a mile from the Capitol park to the Treasury—was, until within a few years, occupied mostly by buildings of all heights and breadths; of late it has been improved

by the construction of many imposing blocks and spacious hotels. A majority of the Senators and Representatives, as well as a large portion of the clerks, live in hotels or boarding-houses. Washington, outside of its political attractions, is hardly an interesting place of permanent residence: the terms of the members of Congress are so short, that few of them care to establish themselves there; and most of the clerks are ill able to afford the expensive living which keeping house in Washington implies. Those Senators and members, however, who, or whose families, desire to share social as well as political triumphs, take and fit up elegant mansions, and, with the Cabinet ministers, the mayor of the city, and the wealthy citizens, aid in establishing a brilliant and attractive society. And this society, as is befitting in the metropolis of a Republic, is very accessible. Those who flock to Washington in the winter from all parts of the Union, the foreign guests of the nation, and the clerks, find no difficulty in securing admittance to the saloons of the Cabinet and Senators. It requires neither wealth, descent, distinction, nor rank; people who are respectable in reputation and manners, whether ambassador or clerk, whether congressman or tradesman, are at liberty to partake of their hospitality. Receptions, balls, whist-parties, are frequent. New-Year's day is a great social gala, and it is well worth while to be in Washington when that day comes round. Business is suspended, the public departments are closed, and at an early hour the

city is astir with shoals of gentlemen, dressed in black broadcloth and white neckties, passing hither and thither, bent on reaping the full benefit of the festive anniversary. Not only the President, Cabinet, Senators, and city officials, but also the housekeeping private citizens "receive" on that day; it is a universal occasion for paying long-neglected social debts, for "setting matters right"—in a social point of view—for the new year, as well as at the same time having a general jollification. It is the fashion for the gentlemen to make the calls, while the ladies remain at home to receive them. At the houses of the Secretaries and other dignitaries, the entertainments are elaborate—including often plentiful champagne and punch, boned turkey and salmon salad, ice-creams and rare fruits—and are quite free to all. At the private houses the usual refreshments consist of "egg-nog," punch, wine, and cake. First, at noon, the rush is to the President's; from there the carriages hasten to the houses of the Secretaries and other public characters; and these more formal calls completed, the troops of gentlemen resort to the houses of their friends, drink a glass of egg-nog and pass the compliments of the season with the ladies, and so pass from one house to another, growing more and more genial as the day advances and frequent potations begin to produce their legitimate effect. It is amusing, late in the afternoon, to walk through the streets at the west end and observe the groups of officers in uniform, of decorated diplomats, and of black-habited citizens, as they come, laughing and

joking, with faces aglow with "that last glass" of apple-toddy or rum-punch, out of one house and hasten on to the next, or whirl by in a state of infectious merriment in their cabs and barouches. So it goes on till late at night: rich and poor, great officials and small, citizens and strangers, enjoy the day to the utmost. Perhaps the President and his Cabinet—what with the handshaking and too oft repeated "compliments of the day" passed with the ten thousand obscure—are the only people in the city to be pitied. The hotels in Washington are generally not so ostentatious and spacious as the best in New York or Philadelphia; they are, however, during the winter filled to their utmost capacity, and they provide frequent entertainments for their guests and their invited friends. Their long drawing-rooms are weekly thrown open for dancing-parties, which are as fashionable and *recherchés* as those in the private mansions, being often attended by the *élite* of the official and diplomatic circles. There are one or two good theatres, and in the season Washington receives visits from the leading opera troupes and dramatic artists. Another attraction in the capital consists of the free lectures which are given at the "Smithsonian Institution." This is an establishment founded by the munificence of James Smithson, a wealthy English gentleman who bequeathed more than half a million of dollars to the United States "for the purpose of increasing and diffusing knowledge among men." A very handsome edifice of red sandstone, looking much like some ex-

tensive and ornately built English castle, was erected in the broad open space which lies between the city and the Potomac. This is provided with a museum, laboratories, a fine library, collections of natural history, geology, and mineralogy, and a spacious lecture-room. Here lectures take place at frequent intervals, free to the public, on a great variety of subjects, and delivered by the most distinguished literary and scientific men of the land, who are paid from the ample funds of Smithson's bequest. Such men as Agassiz, Bayard Taylor, George William Curtis, Vice-President Colfax, Dr. Lord, and others equally well known, have thus provided from time to time rich intellectual feasts, which have included experiments in science, historical narrative, literary criticism, and humorous illustrations of character.

CHAPTER VII.

THE COURTS AND JUDGES: *Law and the Lawyers—Customs of the Bench and Bar—An American Court-room.*

As the United States government has certain powers over the states, taken as a whole or as a nation—and as, on the other hand, the states, taken separately, have all the powers of a self-governing community, excepting those given up to the general government by express provision — there are two systems of courts, one for the United States, another for the states as local governments. The United States courts deal with those cases which affect the whole nation, and which arise under the Constitution, the national laws, and in respect to treaties with foreign powers. They decide all matters relating to ambassadors, other public ministers, and consuls; they have jurisdiction over all admiralty and maritime cases, as these cases affect the nation as a whole; they also decide all disputes, in which the United States is a party, between the several states, between a state and citizens of another state, between citizens of different states, and between any state and foreign nations, or the subjects of foreign nations. The state courts, on the other

hand, which are created and empowered by each local state government, have authority to decide matters relative to property, crime, and civil rights or wrongs within the state where they are located.

The Supreme Court of the United States is, as its name implies, the highest judicial body in the Union. In all the cases just mentioned, excepting in those relating to ambassadors and other foreign agents, it is a high court of appeal from the lower United States courts; in the excepted case, it has original jurisdiction. The Supreme Court is created by the Constitution; the judges may be increased or decreased by act of Congress. The present number of judges, including the Chief-Justice, is nine; they are appointed for life, or during good behaviour, by the President, subject to the confirmation of the Senate. The annual salary of the Chief-Justice is 6,500 dollars; that of each of the associate Justices 6,000 dollars. The officers of the court are, the clerk and one or two assistants, the marshal, and the reporter; these are selected by the judges. The annual session of the Supreme Court begins about the time that Congress meets, and closes in the spring. The present Supreme court-room is that which was occupied by the Senate before the new wings to the Capitol were built. The apartment is semicircular, much smaller than the present Senate chamber, with narrow galleries extending around the semicircular and the diametrical walls. A long raised desk confronts you on entering;

behind this sit the nine judges, who wear plain silk gowns as the only mark of their judicial rank. At one side is the desk of the clerk; at the other, that of the marshal. Over the judges' heads is a large portrait of Washington; and disposed about the room are busts of the former Chief-Justices. Near the door are seats for spectators; in the space between these and the judges' desk are long tables for the use of the lawyers. The proceedings are usually of that dry nature which long arguments on abstract questions of law possess; there is seldom a case of exciting interest; the sombre quiet of the chamber is monotonous; and it is only when public curiosity has been aroused by the announcement that some famous pleader is to speak, that the seats reserved for spectators are occupied. Not a few of the Senators and members of the lower House divide their labours between their legislative duties and—what they are quite at liberty to do—practising in the Supreme Court; and the most distinguished advocates from all sections of the country are frequently to be heard there.

The duties of the judges of the Supreme Court are not confined to its annual session at Washington. During the recess, which comprises, indeed, the greater part of the year, they go each upon a defined circuit. The Union is divided into nine circuits; in each of these a circuit court holds two sessions every year in each state comprised within the circuit limit. The Supreme-Court judge assigned to the circuit presides

over the court, and is assisted by a district judge. Besides the circuit courts there are what are called district courts of the United States. There is one district court for each state; it is presided over by one judge, called the district judge; and its main function is to decide admiralty and maritime cases. An appeal is had from the district to the circuit court—the district judge and one of the Supreme Court justices constituting the latter; and an appeal is also had from the circuit to the Supreme Court. The district judges, like those of the Supreme Court, are appointed for life by the President. In each district, that is in each state, there is an officer called the District Attorney, who occupies the position in this inferior United States court occupied by the Attorney-General in the national Supreme Court; he is the government counsel: there is also in each state a United States Marshal, performing the duties of a sheriff. There is in the United States no general Court of Chancery, as in England. In most of the states the local common-law courts have equity powers, and sit at stated times as courts of chancery; in one or two—as in New Jersey and Delaware—there are local courts of chancery, held by chancellors, which confine themselves to the province of equity. There is in America no officer corresponding to the English Solicitor-General. The Attorney-General is rather a political than a legal officer—being a member of the Cabinet, chosen from the President's party, and acting as his political as well as legal ad-

viser. He enters office, therefore, with no necessary prospect of being subsequently advanced to the bench ; indeed, there have been but two Attorneys-General, out of the thirty since the foundation of the Union, who have afterwards sat on the Supreme Bench—Taney and Clifford. On the other hand, Attorneys-General have often succeeded to other political positions—to the Senate, or a higher cabinet office. He is, however, the government counsel in the Supreme Court in cases in which the United States is a party.

The local courts of the different states vary in many respects. In some there is only one court higher than the police courts ; in others, two or three. In Massachusetts, all the local judges are appointed for life by the Governor of the state ; in New York, they are elected by the people for a certain term ; in Maryland they are elected by the people—the Governor designating one of those chosen as Chief-Justice ; in Maine they are appointed by the Governor for seven years. Perhaps the prevailing system is that of having a state Supreme Court, which is the upper court, and hears both original cases of a certain importance and appeals ; a Superior Court, or Court of Common Pleas ; and police-courts for inferior matters. In Massachusetts the Supreme Court consists of a Chief-Justice and five associate Justices. It is the only court which can try crimes punishable by death, divorce-suits, and chancery cases. It is also competent—as well as the Superior, or next lower court—to try civil cases, in which the amounts

claimed exceed 1,000 dollars ; and appeals may be had to it from the Superior Court. The latter comprises a Chief-Justice and nine associate Justices, and may hear civil claims of amounts exceeding 20 dollars, and all criminal cases involving a less penalty than death. The salaries of the judges vary in the different states. Those of the Massachusetts Supreme Court are each 5,000 dollars, the Chief-Justice receiving 500 dollars more ; of the Superior Court, 4,000 dollars. In Maryland, the judges get 3,000 dollars ; in New York, 3,500 dollars ; in Pennsylvania, 6,000 and 5,000 dollars ; in Missouri, 3,000 dollars. The state courts decide all matters not included in the jurisdiction of the national courts, as before described. They try suits concerning property, the validity of wills, trespass, and crimes—excepting treason, and crimes against the nation. Besides the courts mentioned, there are in each state courts of bankruptcy and probate. Cases in which a jury is necessary—which involve questions of fact, and of mixed law and fact—are tried by a single judge ; questions of law alone are tried by all the judges sitting together in *banco*, as in England. In none of the state courts is any costume whatever worn by either judges, officers, or lawyers. The English visitor will miss the carefully curled horse-hair wigs of the barristers, the gowns worn on the bench at Westminster, and the paraphernalia of the officers of the court. He will find the judges at their desks, dressed primly and carefully perhaps, but in quite everyday apparel, and dis-

tinguished by no external mark of dignity. The annual sessions of these courts are held at the state capitals, usually in the winter; and in the interval between the sessions, the judges go upon circuit, and sit at *nisi-prius* trials, as in England. Each state has its Attorney-General, or prosecuting officer, on behalf of the community, whose duty it is to bring offenders against person or property before the tribunals. He is usually elected by the people.

The Americans have, indeed, in establishing their courts, avoided the pomp and ceremonial which attend the administration of justice in monarchical countries; they have eschewed the wigs and gowns, and the symbols of the magisterial dignity; but they have wisely profited by one inheritance, at least, from the mother country. The common law of England lies at the base of American jurisprudence. With a single exception, every state has founded its laws upon that noble product of long generations of judicial wisdom and legislative foresight. Blackstone's Commentaries is the first book read by the American law-student; the most eminent American jurists who have written upon legal subjects—Story and Kent—have but amplified and explained the English common law. That law—with the statutory additions which the legislatures of the different states have made to it, and which are rather supplementary than subversive—is the law which now prevails in the United States as in England. If an English lawyer visits an American court, one thing at

least will sound familiarly in his ears—he will hear Coke and Sugden, Blackstone and Adams, quoted as frequently as at home. The modifications by statute are comparatively few—and the Anglo-Saxon nations recognise the same great principles of law. The definitions and distinctions of murder, the law of libel, the law of wills and descent, the tenure of land, and the practical instruments of the law—the deeds and mortgages, the summonses and leases—are very nearly, if not quite, identical. In one state only the common law is not the basis of its legal system. Louisiana was formerly a colony of the French Crown; it was purchased from France by the United States in the time of Napoleon I. There the civil law and the Code Napoléon still exert a predominating authority. In the other states a man is of age at twenty-one; in Louisiana he does not arrive at legal independence till he is twenty-five; and in very many respects the laws of that state vary from those of her sisters, as do the Scottish laws from the English.

The legal profession is, to many educated young Americans, a very attractive one; so much so that, especially in the east, in the states which border on the Atlantic coast, it is sadly overcrowded. The law is in America much more frequently than in England the stepping-stone to political honours; besides, the rules of admission to the bar are not nearly so stringent; and it is therefore much more easy of access. The education of a lawyer is of less duration, and the

formalities necessary to be able to practise are comparatively simple. There are usually two modes in which a legal education is pursued. First, it must be premised that there are no grades or ranks among lawyers in America as there are in England. There is no division in the profession such as that which exists in England between the barrister and the solicitor or attorney. The American lawyer is invariably barrister, solicitor, and attorney in one. He is empowered to do, and does actually do, the work which in England is divided between two distinct professions. He draws deeds and makes wills, prepares and conducts the written pleadings, and sees to the serving of writs, like the English attorney; he takes charge of cases in court, examines and cross-examines witnesses, addresses the jury, and argues the law to the judge, as does the English barrister. Sometimes, it is true, a lawyer who has made a reputation in a particular branch of the profession—in tracing titles, in criminal cases, or in maritime law—confines his practice to this branch. There are many who never appear in court, and whose practice is confined to their offices; there are others who only act as advocates, and who receive retainers for this purpose from other lawyers; but these have an established position. The great mass perform every kind of legal business which comes in their way. And those who do confine themselves, from choice or special aptitude, to what is done in England by attorneys, are quite as highly considered as those who are advocates

before the courts. The certificate of "admission to the bar" gives power to practise in every branch of the profession. There is no custom, as in England, of attending Inns of Court, eating there a prescribed number of dinners, and studying in chambers. Many of the universities and colleges have law-schools attached to them; the law-student either attends the lectures given at these for a certain period, or, as is perhaps most commonly the case, he takes a desk in some established lawyer's office, and, under his supervision, reads the customary text-books, meanwhile picking up the practical experience to be gained by observing and partaking in the everyday routine of legal business. Sometimes the student combines these methods: first hearing several courses of lectures at a law-school, and afterwards, in order to learn the practical operation of the theories with which the school has familiarised him, entering some well-known lawyer's office; sometimes, too, he reverses this process, proceeding from the practical to the theoretical education. The law-schools comprise usually two or three professors of learning and distinction, who take turns in lecturing, and each of whom has his particular department of subjects. Perhaps the best known American law-school is that connected with Harvard University at Cambridge. Here there is a substantial building, which contains a spacious lecture-room and an excellent law-library. Some of the most eminent of American statesmen have been professors there. Judge Story, whose

Commentaries are well known among lawyers in England; John Quincy Adams, afterward President; Greenleaf, the author of the standard book on evidence, occupied chairs at the Harvard law-school; and now Emory Washburn, formerly Governor of Massachusetts, and the author of several much-esteemed works on real estate, is one of the instructors. There is no examination for admission to the law-school. The attendance on lectures is quite voluntary. Two lectures are given each day, occupying the time between eleven and one; the rest of the time is left to the students to continue their course of reading, and to examine the various text-books and reports which have a bearing upon the lectures which are then going on. One professor, for instance, delivers, from eleven to twelve, a discourse on the law of wills; the same professor, from twelve to one, lectures, perhaps, on the law of partnerships; another day, one of his colleagues will deliver two lectures on different subjects. The larger part of the students take copious notes, and they are permitted at any time to interrupt the professor, and ask him questions on the subject of which he is speaking. Sometimes the professor himself proposes a problem, and asks this student or that what the law is in regard to it. The professors have studies in the law-building, and they are always accessible to inquiring students, and glad to solve any legal difficulties which may have perplexed them. The law-library at Harvard is a valuable one; and the English lawyer would be surprised

to find how large a part of it is occupied by English text-books and reports. Once a week there takes place a very useful exercise ; what is called a "moot court" is held. The moot court is intended to accustom the students to "getting up" cases and publicly arguing them. One of the professors presides as judge ; a certain case has been proposed, in which certain facts are considered as admitted, and the only question is on the principles of *law* applying to it. Two students are appointed on each side to argue it ; one of the more advanced students is on each side the "senior," or leading counsel ; one of the younger students on each side the "junior" counsel. A table is placed below the desk of the professor, now the judge ; the "counsel" take their places on either side of it ; and the students who choose to attend the discussion (they may or not, as they like) sit on benches ranged on either side. The counsel, pro and con, marshal their arguments, appeal to their authorities, lay down their legal dogmas ; the judge now and then interrupts to puzzle them with an awkward question, putting this or that matter in a new light. At the moot court of the following week the professor delivers his judgment on the case. The regular course at the Harvard law-school occupies eighteen months : when a student has attended lectures for that period he is entitled, without any examination, to the degree of Bachelor of Laws (LL.B.) ; which, however, is a degree and nothing more, giving him in itself no right to practise, but being practically only

the evidence that he has passed through the course at the school. The student who prefers to read in a lawyer's office is received on various conditions. Sometimes he pays one hundred dollars or two hundred dollars a-year for the privilege; sometimes the lawyer who receives him finds himself compensated, for the trouble of directing his studies and setting him right on matters of practice, by the assistance which the student affords him in drawing deeds or pleadings, and looking up his cases in the text-books and reports; sometimes again, if the student is very clever, the lawyer will even pay him for his office services, besides giving him the opportunity of learning the practical details of the business.

The condition of being admitted to the bar is, that the candidate shall pass a certain specified examination. The applicant usually resorts to one of the judges of the state courts; this dignitary either undertakes to make the examination himself, or he designates one or two lawyers of high standing to conduct it. The candidate is sometimes invited to take a seat at one of the side-tables in the court room, where, very likely, a case is being tried; the judge to whom he applies gives him a written paper, containing some forty or fifty questions designed to try his familiarity with the general principles of common or statute law, the judge meantime "keeping his eye on him," that he may not communicate with anyone. He writes out his answers, being awarded three or four hours for the task; he

then gives them to the judge, who takes till the next day to consider them. If the papers show an adequate proficiency, the judge gives the candidate a certificate, testifying that he has passed a good examination, and is qualified to be admitted to the bar. The next step is to request some lawyer to move that he be admitted to practise. The lawyer and candidate proceed to one of the courts, armed with the judge's endorsement, certificates of good moral character, that the candidate is of age, a citizen of the state, and so on; and just as the session is about to open, the lawyer rises, addresses the bench, reads the papers, and makes the motion; the judge who happens to be sitting orders that the candidate be admitted; and the clerk of the court delivers to him a signed and sealed certificate to that effect, for which he is rewarded by a five-dollar bill. When the examination is confided to one or more lawyers the candidate attends at their offices, and the examination is either oral or written, as the examiners prefer—perhaps more often the former mode is adopted. His admission to the bar enables the young lawyer to practise in all the local courts—and only these—of the state where he is admitted; but in many of the states there is a custom of courtesy, by which a lawyer removing from one state into another is admitted to the courts of the latter without the formality of an examination. Comparatively few lawyers extend their practice to the United States courts—the circuit and district courts before described. Those who desire, however,

to add a maritime practice to their business, make application to the district judge, and he refers them to certain "commissioners"—eminent maritime lawyers—who give notice of the application in the papers, and who conduct a new examination for admission to practise in these courts.

That, in such a judicial system as that which has been sketched, the law should be a stepping-stone to public honours, is not, perhaps, strange. The appointment of the United States judges resting with the President, who is a political functionary and the head of a political party, eminent statesmen and politicians are often elevated to the bench. Four of the six chief-justices of the United States were more distinguished in the political than the legal arena. The first chief-justice, John Jay, had been a member of the Congress of the Confederation, and a diplomatist. John Rutledge, the second, was long identified with the politics of South Carolina. Roger B. Taney, the fifth, would never have been chief-justice but for political events. He was a great favourite with President Jackson, and had successively been his Attorney-General and his Secretary of the Treasury. In the latter capacity he had, in compliance with the President's wishes, removed the national deposits from the United States bank. The Senate was bitterly hostile to this course, and to mark their displeasure, they rejected Taney's nomination as Secretary. The President waited until he could control a senatorial majority, and then, to

reward Taney for his former disappointment, he nominated him chief-justice. Salmon P. Chase, the present chief-justice, had long ceased practising law when he was elevated to the bench. He had been Senator from Ohio, and Governor of that state, and was one of the earliest advocates of the abolition of slavery. Mr. Lincoln had appointed him Secretary of the Treasury, and he initiated the financial policy of the Union which was called for by the war. He had for some time been a prominent candidate for the presidential nomination. When chief-justice Taney died, Mr. Lincoln proposed Mr. Chase for his office, and he now occupies it. Associate-justices McLean, Thompson, Woodbury, and Campbell were rather statesmen than lawyers; and the district judges often receive their appointments as a reward for political or party services. Notwithstanding this fact, the United States bench has been not only irreproachable in its integrity, but greatly respected for its learning, impartiality, and effective administration of justice; and those who may be called the "political" chief-justices—Taney and Chase—have adorned the bench, and proved that a political career does not, in all cases at least, unfit men for a just appreciation of the judicial office.

In the different states, on the contrary, where the judges are appointed by the Governor, they are for the most part selected from the foremost rank of lawyers at the local bar. There is one drawback to this. The salaries given to the state judges are so small, that

lawyers possessing a large and lucrative practice hesitate to relinquish it to sit on the bench. The more prominent lawyers in the cities receive incomes ranging from 20,000 to 50,000 dollars a-year; it is hardly strange that they should decline to throw up such incomes for the judicial salaries of 4,000 or 5,000 dollars. The judicial office is, however, an honour and dignity, and its occupant is looked up to and respected by the community; its authority is agreeable to the lawyer who is weary of years of pleading—the idea of deciding instead of advocating is attractive; after the turmoil of an active legal career, with its failures and hardly-earned triumphs, the ease which the bench offers seems grateful; and so it is that, small as the salaries are, many of the states possess a bench of which they are rightly proud. The judges of Massachusetts, Maine, and Vermont are especially renowned for their great learning and probity. In the states where the judges are elected by the people, partisan opinions too often control the selection; the Republicans have a candidate, and the Democrats a candidate; and the fact that the judicial seats are prizes won by a party struggle, must detract more or less from the dignity of the bench, and sometimes from its independence. In New York, especially in the city of New York, this system of the popular election of judges exhibits its worst—and it must be confessed they are very bad—results. The judges are too often venal, grossly partial, the instruments of political

combinations, and the creatures of a party. In common with the city government, the judiciary of New York have acquired a fame of a by no means sweet savour. But New York is an exceptional case. In Pennsylvania, where the judges are elected by the people, the bench is a very able and highly respected one; justice is well and fairly done, and no taint of corruption assails the good name of the bench. In these states—where the judges are elected—the bench is less often regarded as a resting-place for life than in the states where they are appointed, from among the lawyers who confine themselves to their profession, by the executives. The elected judges are usually politicians as well as lawyers; they often go on the bench as they would accept a political office, by no means intending to remain there for life; and it is frequently the case that judges leave the bench and “run” for Congress or for Governor, or accept a Cabinet office, a diplomatic mission, or a government bureau. That the legal profession is a high-road to public honours may be seen by the fact that a very large proportion of both Houses of Congress, many of the Cabinet officers, envoys to foreign countries, and other officials, are lawyers. Some of the most distinguished generals in the civil war left parchments and law-calf tomes to command brigades and establish sieges. Mr. Lincoln and five of the seven members of his Cabinet were lawyers. Reverdy Johnson, lately envoy to England, the recent American envoys to Paris,

Madrid, and St. Petersburg, were lawyers. Generals Halleck, Rawlins, Banks, Butler, Logan, and Sickles on the Federal side, and Generals Longstreet, Wise, Floyd, and Johnston on that of the South, were lawyers. A large majority of the Presidents have been members of the same profession; and lawyers greatly preponderate among the governors and legislators of the states. Public oratory is, perhaps, the talent having the greatest influence in American politics, and the lawyers are the best talkers.

In society, the learned professions—as is natural in a country where there is no traditional or distinctly defined aristocracy—hold a high place. They, to a great extent, give society its tone; and this is more especially the case in the rural districts and small towns, where their social influence is undivided, while in the cities it is disputed by the wealthy merchants and the literary circles. In the villages, the lawyer, the parson, and the doctor are the unchallenged oracles; the country squires, albeit a sturdy and independent race, regard them with respect, and pay no little deference to their opinions. While the eastern states are sadly overstocked with lawyers, the west needs them, and offers splendid opportunities to the young and active advocate and attorney.

Looking in upon an American court-room, the English visitor must be struck by the great simplicity which prevails. It is ordinarily a large airy room, with plenty of light, and so built as to give every

material convenience to the participants in the daily routine. On one side you will see a wide raised desk, with cushioned arm-chairs behind it, where sit, in the every-day apparel of well-to-do gentlemen, the judges. Before them on the desk are a mass of papers and pamphlets, and, scattered here and there, bulky volumes in law-calf. Each judge has his note-book before him, to which he constantly refers, and in which he jots notes from time to time. In a lower desk, standing upon the carpeted floor, immediately in front of and below the judges, you will not fail to see a prim serious-looking old gentleman—quills behind his ears, and piles of papers before him—dressed much as the judges are: this is the clerk of the court, who has supplied blank writs to the counsel, and heard the endless variety of lawsuits, perhaps, these thirty years. Against the wall, to the right and left of the judges' bench, are two little square desks, at the ends of which you will perceive swords hanging, in cases fastened upright to the desks. Here are portly and important-looking fellows, who now and then call out, in deep bass, "Order!" who bring in the prisoners, if it be a criminal trial, and who rejoice in the titles and dignity of sheriff and deputy-sheriff. Below, in the body of the room, a rail runs in a semicircle, enclosing a large space which is filled at the back with benches, and in the middle with comfortable arm-chairs. At either end of this space, near the clerk's desk, are two broad tables, opposite each other; these are for the

respective counsel in the case which is going forward. The space behind them is filled with an audience of lawyers and law-students, who have come in to hear what is progressing, and who, when there is a *cause célèbre*, crowd it to its utmost capacity. In each of the corners on either side of the judges are two benches, one behind the other: these are for the juries. There are always two juries trying cases at the same session; when one has heard a case, and has retired to consult, the one in the opposite corner begins to hear the next case in turn; when the latter jury goes out, the first jury hears the next case; and so on. A small stand just below the judges serves as a witness-box; while an enclosed bench behind the space occupied by the members of the bar is used by the prisoners, when there are any, guarded by one of the sheriff's deputies. At the back of the room are seats for the public, who are free to enter the courts without distinction. The lawyers address the judges as "your honours," and speak of each other as "my brother Jones," "my learned brother Tompkins;" the judges address the lawyers simply as "Mr. Jones," "Mr. Tompkins." In some of the courts in the northern states—and latterly, also, in some of the southern states—you will find negro lawyers examining witnesses and arguing the law; and there are instances of negroes who have won eminence in the profession. There are no serjeants or queen's counsel, or any ranks corresponding to them, in America; all lawyers

enjoy the same professional rank, and they pass, without any gradations, from the bar to the bench.

In the courts of the eastern and middle states, there is quite as much dignity in the proceedings as in the courts at Westminster; in the courts of the uncereemonious far west there is much more familiarity in the conduct of judges and counsel, and some of the scenes described of the western courts are more amusing than decorous. The west is a land of adventurers and "rough and ready" settlers; and courts of justice, as well as all other social and political institutions, exhibit the characteristics of a pioneer race.

CHAPTER VIII.

STATE, CITY, AND TOWN GOVERNMENTS.

EACH state possesses a complete government, having a written constitution, and comprising executive, legislative, and judicial branches. The state judicial system has been described in the preceding chapter. The executive branch consists of a Governor, a Lieutenant-governor, a Secretary of State, a Treasurer, an Attorney-General, an Auditor, Commissioners, and Inspectors: the inferior offices, however, differ somewhat in the various states.

The Governor and Lieutenant-governor are elected by the people of each state; and in most of the states the other executive officers are chosen at the same time and in the same manner. The terms of office of the Governors are laid down by the state constitutions, and vary widely. In the New England states the term is one year, and annual elections take place. In New York the Governor and other state officers hold office for two years; in Pennsylvania for three years; in Virginia for five years. The salaries of the Governors range from 1,000 dollars, as in New Hampshire, to 5,000 dollars, as in Pennsylvania and Virginia. The duties of

the Governor in regard to the state correspond in many respects with those of the President in regard to the United States. To him is confided the appointment of the state judges, notaries, justices of the peace, and other subordinate and local officers, usually subject to the approval of the upper House of the legislature; he communicates by message with the legislature, sending in at the opening of the annual session a report of the past events, condition, and necessities of the state, and recommending such measures as he thinks expedient. He has the qualified power of veto, like the President; and an executive council in some states—as, for instance, in Massachusetts—is elected by the people, who are the Governor's official advisers in the general state policy. The Lieutenant-governors in some states preside over the upper House of the legislatures, and, in case of the death or resignation of the Governor, perform his functions during the remainder of his term. The Governor is the Commander-in-chief of the state militia, appoints his staff as such, and often holds military reviews. During the late war, this prerogative of the Governor became a very important one; and many of the state executives at its breaking out—especially Governors Andrew of Massachusetts, Morton of Indiana, and Curtin of Pennsylvania—did effective service in organising and putting at the disposal of the Union the first brigades of that vast volunteer army which, after four heroic years, restored peace to the country. The Governor has the sole power of pardoning offenders

against the common law and state statutes. He resides at the capital of the state, and has offices in the "State House," an edifice corresponding in the states to the Capitol at Washington. He is very accessible to the public, and is attended with little ceremony or formality. The duties of his office are usually not onerous; and often the governors live unostentatiously, and without any official or personal display.* The Secretary of State keeps the records, countersigns the Governor's proclamations, and performs other duties which the title implies. The functions of the Treasurer and Auditor are explained by their designations.

The state legislatures are divided into two Houses, an upper and a lower House. The upper House is invariably styled the Senate, the lower is usually called the House of Representatives—sometimes the House of Delegates or the House of Commons. The terms of the legislatures vary widely. In the New England states both Houses are elected annually, as well as the Governor and other state officers. In many states the Senators are elected for four, and the Representatives for two years; in others, both are chosen biennially; in yet others, the Senators have two years, and the Representatives one. The legislature meets annually, more often in winter; its sessions extend late into the spring or into the summer. The House of Representa-

* Silas Wright, an eminent statesman, formerly Senator and Governor of New York, who declined the presidential nomination, spent much of his time in working hard, with his own hands, on his farm.

tives elects its own Speaker and officers; the Senate, its President and officers, excepting in the states where the Lieutenant-governor presides over that body. It is almost unnecessary to say that the ambitious politician looks upon the legislature as the readiest stepping-stone to higher political honours. In the modest halls of the State Houses you will find the budding talents which yearn to be heard in more august assemblies, and which will one day win applause from the audience of the nation. Country lawyers preponderate; but there are also doctors and well-to-do farmers, editors fresh from local sanctums, and here and there fervidly patriotic parsons. To go up to town during the winter months, and sit in the legislature, is a high object of ambition not more to the "village Hampdens" than to many of the "sturdy yeomanry." The legislature of a state is therefore, in more than one sense, a remarkably representative body: it reflects the local character and peculiarities, the favourite pursuits, the prevailing type, as well as the political will, of the community. The refined and acute city lawyer, the wealthy and public-spirited merchant, or the caustic and nervous editor, usually "leads" the body; but his followers have a will of their own, and party discipline is not always easily enforced. Among the many homely and irrelevant speakers, now and then there is one that seizes and forcibly interprets the popular feeling on a timely subject. He is marked in the party books for promotion, and the next year he becomes Speaker, or is sent to Congress. Not seldom the elections of mem-

bers of the legislature turn less on national politics—on party distinctions of Republican and Democrat—than on some local question applicable to the state alone. Sometimes the dispute is whether or not there shall be a prohibitory liquor law; sometimes, whether libraries shall be opened on Sundays; sometimes, whether this or that contract shall be made on the part of the state. But when a United States Senator is to be chosen, the struggle is always between the two national parties. The legislatures, like Congress, are divided into committees, to whom are referred all measures, and who consider and report on them before they are finally acted upon. It is confided to the legislatures, with the Governor's coöperation, to make such changes in the common law as become necessary in the lapse of years, to create and control corporations, and to make statutes affecting the people of the state at large; they have a general control over educational and benevolent institutions, hospitals, railroads, and other public establishments. Each state has the power to define the qualifications of its electors. A proposed amendment to the Constitution of the United States, however, which will probably be adopted, declares that no state shall deny or forbid citizens from voting on account of race, colour, or previous condition of servitude. A mistaken impression prevails with some Englishmen, that universal, unrestricted suffrage exists everywhere in the United States. A statement of the qualifications required of an elector in some of the states will correct this error. In Massachusetts, a male citizen twenty-one

years of age, who can read the Constitution and write his name, who has resided one year in the state and six months in his electoral district, and has paid a tax within two years, has the right to vote. Here there is a condition of intelligence, and also of responsibility in the shape of taxation. Negroes who possess the stated qualifications may vote in Massachusetts as well as whites. The electoral law of Connecticut is the same as that of Massachusetts, excepting that the electors must be *whites*; negroes not yet having been admitted to the suffrage. In Pennsylvania, white freemen twenty-one years of age, having resided in an electoral district *ten* days, and in the state a year, and who have paid a state or county tax within two years, may vote; with this in addition, that freemen between twenty-one and twenty-two need not pay any tax before voting. In Rhode Island there is a property qualification. The elector must own real estate worth 134 dollars, or must pay a rental of seven dollars annually; but every native male citizen who has resided two years in the state and six months in his district, who is duly registered, has paid one dollar tax, and served in the state militia within a year, may vote. In Ohio there is no qualification, either in regard to property or intelligence: white male citizens who are of age, and have resided in the state one year, may vote. Kansas is still more liberal; requiring only a residence in the state six months, and in the township thirty days. In the Kansas state election 'of 1867, an energetic attempt was made to introduce both negro and female suffrage: both

were defeated, however, by a large majority. At the same time the rebels in the state were disfranchised. Mr. Pomeroy, one of the United States Senators from Kansas, is an earnest advocate of female suffrage; and it is not unlikely that that state may ere long adopt it. Iowa has just granted the suffrage to the blacks. Minnesota includes among those admitted to electoral rights persons of mixed white-and-Indian blood, and persons of pure Indian blood, who reside in the state, and "who have adopted the language, customs, and habits of civilisation, when pronounced capable by any district court." Missouri has just amended her electoral law, so that after 1876 the voter must be able to read and write. In North Carolina the following classes of persons are excluded from electoral rights: all persons who shall deny the being of Almighty God, who shall have been convicted of perjury, treason, or other infamous crime, of corruption or malpractice in office, unless legally restored to citizenship. In Oregon, sailors, soldiers, idiots, insane, Chinamen, and negroes are excluded; and most of the states exclude paupers, criminals, idiots, and lunatics. In Texas, taxed Indians may vote. The vote in most, if not all of the states, is by ballot. In Virginia, however, before the civil war, it was taken *viva voce*. The fact that bribery is by no means extensive in the United States is doubtless owing in a large degree to this universality of the ballot. The condition of things there is so different from what it is in England—there being no powerful landlords,

with a great and direct influence weighing upon their tenants—that intimidation of voters is seldom practicable. It may, indeed, be used to some extent by the large manufacturers; but the labour-market is not in America, as in England, overcrowded; on the contrary, it is hardly equal to the demand; hence the operative, not being so absolutely dependent on his employer for work, is less restrained, and may, without fear of losing employment, exercise the suffrage as he pleases.

The CITIES as well as the states are self-governing. Those towns are called cities in America which are incorporated, and possess a municipal government. This government consists of a mayor, a board of aldermen, a board of common councilmen, and such inferior officers as are necessary to carry on the municipal affairs—registers, commissioners, chiefs of police, city attorneys, and so on. The mayor and corporation (the latter being the general name for the city legislature) are elected directly by the people; and it is not at all necessarily the case that the mayor should have previously been a member of either of the boards. In the larger cities the mayor is often a prominent politician, and the mayoralty is regarded as a step toward yet higher political honours. The office of mayor of New York, especially, is one of much dignity and importance, and gives its occupant a conspicuous position in the eyes of the nation. Fernando Wood went from the mayoralty of New York to the national Congress; and John T. Hoffman, now Governor of New York state,

was previously the mayor of the commercial metropolis. The mayors of the different cities hold their offices for various periods of time. Most of the New England cities elect their mayors and corporations annually. The boards of aldermen and of the common council are composed of merchants, lawyers, professional politicians, and well-to-do shopkeepers. The traditional dignity of the "city fathers," with their capacious paunches, their prosperous rotundity and redness of face, their pompous indolence, their conservative moderation of thought and movement, is sometimes found even in America, where roast-beef, green turtle-soup, and port are *not* the sine qua non of aldermanic dinners. As in London, an important duty of the American city governments is "to dine and wine" distinguished guests, to get up harbour excursions or elaborate picnics, and to celebrate every notable event by a gorgeous feast at the best hotel. If, happily, a national convention of doctors, or a general conference of orthodox ministers, or a foreign prince, or a Japanese embassy, or a victorious general, arrives at one of the larger cities, they are waited upon by his honour the mayor (who does not wear, however, any gold chain or other external insignia of office), and, the compliments of welcome passed, the next thing is the invitation to a banquet at the expense of the city. The honoured guests are fêted to their heart's content; they are treated to banquets, they take charming steamboat rides down the bays or up the rivers, they are surfeited with balls, and they are escorted with

great ceremony to all the "sights" of the neighbourhood. The example thus set by the city fathers is zealously followed by ambitious private citizens; for there is no people on earth who like better to "lionise" and display public as well as private hospitality than the Americans.

In every city there is a "City Hall," where are situated the mayor's offices, and the rooms in which the aldermen and common councilmen assemble. The mayor's apartments are spacious and elegant; those of the corporation are usually plain and modest. The city corporation meets two or three times a week; it legislates upon all local matters—the management of the police, the care of property, the laying out and naming of streets, the contracting for buildings and other work for city purposes, provisions for the public health, charitable establishments, education, and the local taxation. Neither the mayor nor the aldermen have usually magisterial functions, as in England; these are performed by police-judges, notaries, and justices of the peace. The mayor and corporation are paid small salaries, as are the members of the state legislature. The city governments are for the most part pure and efficient; but an obtrusive exception to this rule exists in the corporation of the city of New York.

New York has a numerous foreign population, consisting largely of a low and corrupt class. The franchise is so free, that this element, led by demagogues, is able to control the city elections. The result

is that a succession of mayors, judges, and aldermen have been chosen who have launched the city into serious extravagances, and many of whom have been flagrantly corrupt. Judges on the bench have been not only open to bribery, but to the menacing pressure of a mob constituency. Aldermen have been dominated by "rings," and great frauds have been perpetrated both in city contracts and in the items of ordinary city expenditure. The estimated expense of administering the city of New York, with its population of 750,000, during the year 1869, reaches the large sum of 21,000,000 dollars (4,200,000*l.*)! The burden of property and taxation has become so great, that many people have removed their residence from the city into the neighbouring state of New Jersey, only retaining their places of business in New York. The immigration into the port of New York during 1867 amounted to more than 200,000, and 1869 will show a large increase of these numbers; and when it is considered that a large portion of the emigrants remain at the port where they land, it is readily seen how large and increasing a control over the city politics this element possesses. The poorer classes fall into the hands of low men who adopt politics as a lucrative profession, and their votes are openly traded with, while their physical powers are at the service of their leaders when a "demonstration" of any sort is to be made.

Aside, however, from its practical abuses, and looking solely at its constitution, the corporation of

New York may serve to illustrate the system of municipal government. It comprises a mayor, a city judge, a corporation counsel, a register, a comptroller, a street commissioner, a clerk, a sheriff, a recorder, seventeen aldermen, and twenty-one assistant aldermen (called in most cities the common council). The city is divided into twenty-one wards, each ward electing an assistant alderman, and the wards being so divided as to elect seventeen aldermen. There are also a number of commissioners having various duties; four to supervise the hospitals, almshouses, prisons, and asylums; eight to deal with all matters connected with "Central Park," a new and very beautiful park recently laid out at the upper end of the city; eight commissioners of emigration, three tax commissioners, four to superintend the fire department, six commissioners of the Board of Health, twenty-one school commissioners, and others.

The city proper is divided into thirty-two police districts, each of which is under the command of a captain of police. The department of the metropolitan police extends over Brooklyn, and certain counties and towns contiguous to the city, as well as over the city itself. The whole force included in the department is under the control of a superintendent of police; there are four inspectors, forty-five captains, 178 sergeants, 93 doormen, 2,230 patrolmen, and 72 special police, making a total police force of over 2,600 men. There is besides, attached to the police department, a "sanitary squad," subject to the orders of the Board of

Health, and there are special squads for the police courts. Eighteen surgeons are attached to the police department; and there is a detective force exclusive of the regular police. The fire department, which is under the control of four commissioners, comprises about 680 men; there are forty-five engines in the metropolis, each having a fireman and an assistant, an engineer, stoker, driver, and seven firemen. The steam fire engine has been used for some time in New York, and an alarm telegraph has been established throughout the city. There are also fifteen hook and ladder companies for reaching upper stories and saving people and goods from burning houses, comprising a force of 180 men. The duty of the Board of Health is to make inspections and enforce measures, with a view to the sanitary condition of the town. A superintendent and twelve inspectors comprise its active force; and no building can be erected in the city limits without a certificate from the board approving the plan. There are four police courts, each having two judges, who relieve each other by sitting on alternate weeks. A court of special sessions sits three times a week at the Tombs for the hearing of small misdemeanours, two judges presiding. The street commissioners have charge of the wharves, roads and streets, vacant lands, and the lighting of thoroughfares. There are fourteen public hospitals, two of them belonging to and supported by the city. There are thirty-seven asylums for the destitute, the blind, the inebriate, orphans, and so on, two of which are owned by the city, and the rest supported by the vari-

ous religious sects or by independent associations. It is a sign of the times that one of these asylums is devoted exclusively to coloured children. New York is divided into seven school districts, superintended by the Board of Education, which is composed of the twenty-one school commissioners. There are fifty-five ward schools, forty primary schools, and nine coloured schools, supported at the public expense, and free to all classes of children residing in the city limits. The total number of public school teachers is 2,154; there are, besides, many private schools.

There is nothing, perhaps, more strikingly characteristic of the spirit of American institutions than the TOWN governments. Therein lie the germs of the whole polity of the Republic. The townships are the most ancient, the most simple, and the most purely democratic organisations in America. They preceded the formation both of the states and of the national Union. In them is at once recognised an essential difference between the American and the English systems, and the contrast between the ideas which lie at the foundation of the two constitutions. The theory of the English government is, that popular rights and privileges proceed from and are granted by authority. The authority has its fountain-head in the Crown. Liberty comes to the people from above. England was not originally self-governing by its people; the government by the people has come, after centuries of struggles, in which authority has repeatedly made necessary and sub-

stantial concessions. The founders of the American polity started with the idea of the absolute sovereignty of the people, and upon the theory that all authority rested in and proceeded from the people; and from this sprang the simple and pure system of town governments.*

In the national government the people act indirectly, by delegating their powers to representative legislators; and the same is the case in the state government. In the towns the people themselves meet, make their own laws, and choose an executive to put them into practice. The towns were originally divided off, without any fixed limit as to numbers or area; wherever there was a settlement, there was a town, which assembled in "town meeting," and made laws. In the older states, therefore, the townships are found to be smaller and more numerous than in the new states, where there is a certain limit adopted—usually an area of six square miles—to constitute a township. The townships thus marked out, within their own area possess all the powers of a self-governing community, excepting those granted to the state or to the Federal Union. They have full power to raise taxes, to establish schools, to make improvements, to regulate charities. All male citizens participate in

* In the famous political compact, which was drawn up on board the Mayflower (which conveyed the Puritans to New England), this principle was distinctly announced as the foundation of the new commonwealth.

the town government. Every township possesses its Town Hall, and here the town meetings—which are held annually, and not seldom several times a year—assemble. The Town Hall is situated in the principal village included in the area of the township; although in the older states, sometimes, other villages have outgrown the seat of town government, and it is one of the smallest. The building is ordinarily a large, plain edifice, looking not unlike a chapel, with a spacious hall, simply furnished, and used not more for the meetings of the townspeople in their political might and majesty, than for concerts, lectures, school exhibitions, and church fairs. The town meetings are the occasions for an unwonted excitement among the rural population, to whom any event, however small, is a diversion. The farmers from all the contiguous country drive to town in their little homely wagons, fasten their horses along the fences, and proceed in groups—evidently impressed with a sense of their responsibility and importance—to the Town Hall. They have their opinions, these sturdy yeomen; that you can see in their browned, positive faces, and independent bearing. The Puritan blood is there in all its strong sense and firm self-respect. They are great newspaper readers, to a man: not one of them but has his “semi-weekly” regularly from the city, wherefrom he draws political inspiration no less than a knowledge of the events which are passing in the world beyond; not one who does not read, slowly and carefully, the speeches which his member

(of Congress) has been so thoughtful—with a view to future exigences—as to send him. A man who is unable to read is a curiosity. They are, every one, primed with toughest arguments; when their minds are made up that this or that is *right*, they are as immovable as the granite hills among which they live. The town meeting is a most interesting and characteristic body. The farmers and squires, the doctors and parsons, the grocers and apothecaries, assemble in the spacious hall: one rises and proposes Squire Perkins for “moderator.” The moderator is the chairman of the meeting; when chosen, he takes his seat at the small desk at one end of the hall, and with little preface requests the meeting to proceed to business. Then there are motions and counter-motions: Squire Jones thinks the town ought to prop up the bridge over Tibbs’s Creek; Parson Brown wants more funds for the common school; Lawyer Robinson would like to hear how much the town is in debt. The “selectmen” read their yearly report on this and other topics, answer questions from this side and that, and make such explanations as are due to the sovereign people. The selectmen are simply a committee, elected every year in town meeting, and charged with administering the township, according to the will of the meeting, during the ensuing year. They are the town executive. They are chosen by ballot, and are usually the most active and public spirited citizens in the township. Often they are reëlected year after year; for the office,

though not pecuniarily lucrative, is regarded as an honourable one. From the facts stated it will be seen that the town governments are democracies in the most simple and primitive form. The making of laws is not delegated to others—the people make them themselves; and the selectmen are the most directly responsible, the least independent of executives. Town meetings are frequently called by the selectmen in the interval between the regular times of assembling. This happens when any special case arises requiring the popular assent, and in which the selectmen are not inclined to act without the popular authority; or upon the application of a few citizens. Notices are affixed to prominent places—at the inns, the church doors, or the junction of several roads—calling a town meeting to consider such and such matters or propositions; it assembles accordingly; a moderator is chosen, the selectmen state the object of the extraordinary meeting, the townsmen discuss it, and dispose of it by legislative action.

The town meetings of the New England states are historically memorable. These assemblies have witnessed the early efforts of some of the greatest American orators, and have been the occasion for some of the most noteworthy scenes in American annals. It was in town meeting at Boston that James Otis, displaying an eloquence classic in its language and expressive power, and fervent in its audacious patriotism, made the first articulate rebellious protest against the

policy of the mother country toward her colonies. It was in town meeting that John Adams first betrayed his courage and obstinacy, and that Samuel Adams and John Hancock won the distinction of being excepted from the royal offer of amnesty by their advocacy of irreconcilable resistance. It was in town meeting that Daniel Webster, first among transatlantic orators, won the plaudits and the affection of the people. It was in town meetings from one end of the land to the other that the rebellion of the colonies was mooted and resolved, that resistance to the mother country was organised, that men met during the bitter struggle of the Revolution to cheer each other's drooping spirits, to scrape together difficult succours for the patriot troops, to mourn over the many defeats, and to rejoice over the occasional triumphs. And in the late civil war, it was due perhaps more to the town meetings than to the larger political organisations, that volunteer forces were raised with so little difficulty, equipped so quickly, and replaced so easily by equally brave battalions and brigades.

The intelligence and sturdy honesty for which the rural population in America is noted make the town governments successful almost without exception. No element of political corruption invades them; ignorance does not vitiate the justice and good sense of their acts; selfish ambition has little chance among neighbours who know each other through and through; the soundest counsel almost always prevails, and the clearest judgment and best capacity executes.

CHAPTER IX.

AMERICAN POLITICS AND POLITICIANS: *Public speaking—The military element in politics—Political activity and radical ideas—Political corruption—Office-seeking—Election disturbances—The new South—Reconstruction.*

THE Americans take a keen and almost universal interest in politics. In the most secluded villages, as in the largest towns, political questions are everywhere discussed with zest. Intelligence is so widely spread by the freedom of education, that one of the chief pleasures of the farmer, and even of the farmer's boy, is to read the papers and know "the news." The visitor from the city to the rural districts is surprised to find how well posted everybody is on the proceedings in Congress, the party platforms, and the respective qualifications of party candidates. Doubtless this universal interest in politics is largely due also to the intimate relation of all the people to the political institutions of the country. The man who is a power in town meeting, in the city election, in the congressional district—and there are very few who are not voters, and thus powers—has a pride in showing himself worthy of the responsibility. From this intimacy with the political system, and this consequent well-

nigh universal interest in politics, there has resulted a well-nigh universal passion for public speaking. America is a prolific country for orators of more or less genius. It is a land of conventions and assemblies, where it is the most natural thing in the world for people to get together in meetings, where almost every event is the occasion for speech-making, and where oratory has a very perceptible influence in acquiring public authority. If the negroes want the franchise, or women their "rights," the proper and only thing to do is to establish associations, to hold monster conventions, to agitate by calling mass meetings here and there and everywhere, and pouring a ceaseless rain of eloquence upon the people.

Distinguished foreigners find themselves the targets of innumerable addresses, of endless congratulatory speeches, and long municipal "words of welcome." If Hopkins, who has presided over the Chamber of Commerce, retires from that high responsibility, he is at once assailed by a committee of merchants, who read him a regretful document, to which he is fain to reply at length; and the whole appears in the next morning's papers. Popular politicians and generals, wherever they go, must needs address their "fellow citizens" at rustic stations and from railway platforms; and when the train has gone on with its distinguished burden, the local oracles keep up the entertainment by eloquent harangues on the questions of the day in general, and the glorious deeds of the departing visitor in particular.

No small portion of the schoolboy's education is devoted to the practice of speaking in public. At a very early age he learns to ascend the platform, and, in presence of his schoolmaster, to declaim,

“Roll on, thou deep and dark blue ocean, roll!”

or,

“Romans, countrymen, and lovers;”

or,

“My name is Norval; on the Grampian Hills
My father feeds his flock.”

As he progresses, he is required to declaim his own compositions, to engage in debate with his companions, and to appear at exhibitions before lenient audiences of fond parents and admiring damsels. Perhaps, if he lives in a remote village, which holds the “college boy” in admiring awe, he is called upon, some time in his teens, to make orations on patriotic anniversaries, and to “spout” at political meetings. He becomes confident, feels at ease on the platform, grows facile in tongue, and by and by blooms out a finished and prolific public speaker. So it is that there are few Americans who cannot, on occasion, “make a few pertinent remarks;” it is essentially a national custom, and perhaps a national gift. It is no wonder that so universal a habit should not only train some fine orators, but that it should also conduce, in a large degree, to that general political education of which public meetings are the best possible mediums. The American political speakers and politicians are not by any means confined to those who make politics an ex-

clusive profession, or those who are personally interested in the election of this or that candidate. Men of all professions and occupations mingle in the exciting campaigns, take part in the conventions and caucuses, and find a relief and a diversion from their daily labours in actively participating in political struggles. It is by no means rare to see clergymen joining in the political fray. Henry Ward Beecher, the most eloquent of American pulpit orators, often lectures and writes upon political subjects. At one time a formidable minority of the Massachusetts legislature were clergymen; this was when the "Know-nothing" party was waging its brief crusade against the foreigners and Romanists, and many of the Protestant clergy joined in the political attack upon the Papal Church. There are now two Senators of the United States who are Methodist ministers—Senators Harlan of Iowa and Brownlow of Tennessee. During the civil war, the clergy were generally very active in support of the Union, exhorting the people, speaking at recruiting meetings, and supporting candidates. Merchants, doctors, lawyers, as well as office-holders and professional politicians, serve on the party committees, contribute freely to the expenses, and put their shoulders to the wheel at the crisis of the election, most of them having no expectation of earning thereby any personal profit. There are, besides, plenty of men who work for a selfish purpose, who demand a reward for their exertions if their party succeeds; it is mostly these

men who form the vast army of zealous office-seekers which besieges each new presidential administration.

The fact that the rival parties must depend for success as much on the personal popularity of their candidates, as upon the creed of their political faith, has resulted in a frequent connection of military men with American politics. A victorious general receives—even among a people as prone to peace and peaceful pursuits as the Americans—an enthusiastic admiration such as few statesmen or orators, however brilliant their talents, can arouse. There is something in military courage, above all, in military success, that fascinates humanity in every phase, whether of barbarism or civilisation. After each of the wars in which the United States has engaged, the politicians have turned with one accord to the most prominent generals to bear the political standard in the elections. And they have proved to be, almost without exception, irresistible candidates for political power. The result is that, for the years immediately succeeding a war, military men are found filling civil offices of every grade. How extensive and invariable has been the practice of choosing generals for political places may be seen by a glance at American history. Washington, the first President, was the hero of the revolutionary war; Hamilton, his Secretary of the Treasury, and Knox, his Secretary of War, had won fame in the army. Two of the generals in the war of 1812—Generals Jackson and Harrison—subsequently became Presidents; Clinton

and Burr, revolutionary soldiers, were Vice-Presidents ; of the Secretaries of War, Eustis, Armstrong, Porter, and Rawlins were military men. After the war with Mexico (1846-9) there was a brisk competition among its heroes for the Presidency and other high offices. General Taylor, who fought the battle of Buena Vista, won in the political race, and became President ; he was opposed by General Cass, a soldier of 1812, who was supported by General W. O. Butler, a Mexican war general, as the candidate for Vice-President. At the next presidential election (1852) two more officers of the Mexican war opposed each other—Generals Pierce and Scott, the former winning, and selecting an old brother officer, Colonel Jefferson Davis, as his Secretary of War. In the two elections which have taken place since the outbreak of the civil war, there have been military candidates. In 1864 General M'Clellan was the democratic candidate, but could not prevail against the deep personal affection and trust which the nation reposed in Abraham Lincoln. In 1868 General Grant “walked over the course,” the candidate for Vice-President on the defeated ticket—General Blair—having also been a distinguished Union soldier. At present it would be interesting to note how large a proportion of the national and state offices are held by ex-Federal soldiers. There are very many in Congress; the present governors of Maine, New Hampshire, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Wisconsin, and the recent governor of Rhode Island, were in the Union army; and multitudes of

other offices of less note are occupied by soldiers of every grade, from generals to lieutenants. It is worthy of remark, too, that the military Presidents have been by no means the worst whom the Republic has had. Washington and Jackson, Taylor and Grant, were good chief magistrates, whose capacity for administration, and whose honesty and homely vigour, were in no degree inferior to the statesmen Presidents. The fear of a military dictatorship seems never to have been felt; and the military Presidents seem never once to have thought of such an event. The political history of the United States proves that, however subject other republics have been to the dangers of military ambition, such an ambition is wholly contrary to the spirit of American institutions, and could never be enforced there. The standing army is very small, quite incompetent to execute a *coup d'état*; and the complete organisation of the several states would give the resistance to such an attempt a stand-point at as many centres as there are states.

The fact that the military element, after a war, enters so largely into politics, is one favourable to the rapid establishment of a volunteer army, and the quick growth of a military spirit. Young men see in a coming war not only an opportunity to achieve fame on the battle-field, but also a means of rising to high civil dignity after the war has closed. So that, let the President issue a proclamation calling for volunteers, and the ambitious youth of the land, fired by the pro-

spect of a double prize as well as by patriotism, flock to the ranks, emulate each other in learning the art of war, and rejoice in the occasions which display alike their courage and their military skill. America will never, then, need a standing army; conscription will not be necessary; as long as American institutions are what they are, and as long as military renown is so good a passport to political eminence, armies will spring up at the time of need, and when exhausted, will be replaced by other armies equally formidable.

America has no antique political traditions; she is bound by no long-hallowed precedents; her people have no reverence for the ancient by reason of its antiquity. Americans, therefore, are the more ready and the more zealous in the trial of new expedients, more quickly adopt radical opinions, and push politics to far greater extremes, than if they were so bound to the past. Thus it is that all sorts of propositions and questions are constantly agitated, and measures of every kind receive more or less adherents. Agitation of some sort or other is always going on; as soon as one progressive measure has been adopted, another appears, and is thrust upon the community, until it in turn is accomplished. For many years slavery was the great topic of agitation; abolition was pursued by a few earnest and courageous men, who subjected themselves to the attacks of the slave power, and what was perhaps as little supportable, the sneers of respectable society. Americans have always had a deep, almost superstitious

reverence for their written Constitution. It has been looked on as almost sacrilegious even to criticise it. But the abolitionists, in pursuit of their end, did not hesitate to shock this sentiment by declaring that the Constitution, because it suffered slavery, was "a league with hell and a covenant with death." The slavery struggle went on for more than a quarter of a century ; gradually the people of the North, provoked to it in a great measure by the arrogance and threats of the slave-holding oligarchy, were converted to abolition ; and slavery was annihilated finally by the civil war. Succeeding this came the agitation for negro suffrage. The southern states had laws which prohibited negroes from learning to read and write, prevented them from testifying in a court of justice against a white man, and forbade them the ordinary protection of the laws. This, after much agitation, was remedied by the Union conceding them civil rights. Then came the proposition to give them votes ; and it seems probable that by the adoption of the new amendment to the national Constitution, no one shall be denied the suffrage on account of race or colour. The country was next agitated as to the mode of treating the defeated South, and of "reconstructing" the states lately in rebellion ; this was settled by Congress, and embodied in the reconstruction amendment to the Constitution. Recently, the agitation in favour of female suffrage has assumed much larger proportions, owing, perhaps to the absence of other subjects for discussion, and to the energy of some women of

marked ability and energy. They argue that, justice having been done to the negro, women should next be admitted to the polls. Some of the most eminent politicians have espoused the cause of female suffrage. Senators Wilson, Wade, and Pomeroy, Wendell Phillips and Ralph Waldo Emerson, are among its earnest advocates; and it is probable that some of the more radical states will in no long time try the experiment. Meantime there are woman's rights conventions everywhere; lecturers are busy impressing the subject on the public mind; a newspaper has been established as a "Woman's Rights" organ in New York; and even those politicians and papers which oppose the cause, and have previously sneered at it, are beginning to discuss the claims of women in a serious and argumentative tone. So it is that all radical ideas find a quick expression somewhere in America, and attract followers, and "agitate." The good sense of the people, in the midst of so many claims, may be trusted to judge each by its merits, and, while rejecting the chaff which is fruitless, to settle upon the good grain and enjoy it.

It has been customary for the Presidents, on leaving the White House, to retire altogether into private life, and to appear no more as public men. They lapse into obscurity, and are speedily forgotten. It is not regarded as dignified for an ex-President to accept an inferior office, or to reappear at Washington, the scene of his former power. There have, however, been exceptions to this custom, which rather savours of an aristo-

cratic etiquette than of republican equality. Washington, after having served two terms as President, was made Lieutenant-general, and nominally commanded the armies until his death. President Monroe was so indifferent to the custom, and so entirely unaffected in his democratic inclinations, that after leaving the White House he became a justice of the peace in Virginia. The most notable exception to the rule, however, was the good and venerable John Quincy Adams. He was not content to cease serving the nation when he ceased to enjoy its highest dignity. He devoted himself earnestly to the cause of abolition; he accepted an election from his native district to the lower House of the national Congress, and retained his seat in that body to the end of his long and useful life. For nearly twenty years—until he was long past his four-score years—he battled manfully for the cause of the slave, amid savage threats and grievous insults, motions of expulsion and bitter personal tirades, from the southern members; and he died, as did Chatham, at his post, with his armour on. He was a very old man. One day he was presenting a petition for the abolition of slavery, and commenting upon it, when he suddenly fell in a fit. Conscious that his time had come, he murmured, "And this is the last of earth!" These were his last words. He was taken into one of the rooms near by, and soon passed away. So died, struggling for the right, one of the noblest and best of American statesmen; one who sacrificed his pride to descend from the Presidency to

the legislative arena, there to struggle with a dominant and vindictive oligarchy.

It cannot be questioned that there is much political corruption in America. There is, however, this difference between the corruption which exists there and that which exists in England. In America there is comparatively little bribery or intimidation of the voters. The elections are not, as a rule—excepting now and then in a few localities—controlled by unfair or immoral means. Bribery is used, not to influence electors, but to corrupt the legislative bodies after they are elected: it is transferred from the polls to the “lobby.” Congress is much less subject to such influences than some of the state legislatures and the city corporations; still there are in every Congress members who are accessible to the “lobby” managers—a class of men who make it their profession to get bills through the Houses, and who use every means to accomplish their end. Their modes of proceeding are various; but they make it their business to know and secure those members who will sell their votes. The recent course of Congress shows, however, that only a very small proportion of the members are purchaseable. A crusade has been successfully waged against “lobby” bills. Some of the state legislatures are noted for their corruption. Jobs of the most infamous kind have been repeatedly carried in that of New York. Members are attacked both by threats of losing office, and by the offer of large sums of money; and it is sometimes

only the very small minority who are able to resist the warning or the temptation. Governors have been charged with selling offices to the highest bidder. This practice is one of the most dangerous in American politics. I would not represent corruption to be by any means universal: happily it is not so. The good sense of the people have, in many states and cities, successfully resisted it; still it is an evil too patent to be ignored, and one which, in New York especially, must be vigorously attacked by the intelligence and virtue of the community, or it will bring great disasters upon the people.

Office-seeking is perhaps a necessary evil in a republic. There are evils special to every form of government; and this is one which, when it has grown to be a custom, it is hard, in a democratic state, to eradicate. Latterly the American Presidents have followed the maxim, "To the victors belong the spoils." General Jackson, forty years ago, first put this principle into extensive practice. Before his accession to the Presidency, government officers generally retained their places so long as they filled them creditably. General Jackson's initiative has been followed by his successors. The officers of the civil service, high and low, look forward with dread to the accession of a new President. The idea is, that the Presidency is a prize to be competed for by the rival parties; that the election is a party victory; that the offices are prizes as well as the Presidency; and that those who have actively contributed

to the party triumph are entitled to a party reward in the prizes which the party struggle has won. The workers in the "campaign" therefore claim their share of the presidential gifts, gauging their demands according to their prominence, influence, and amount of service. Generals, ex-Senators, Governors, aim for foreign missions, the higher consulships, Cabinet places, rich post-offices, assessorships, and bureaux; local oracles are content with department clerkships, small consulships, small post-offices, and agencies. Those who are already in grow nervously enthusiastic over the "coming man" and his party; those who are out, but want to get in, aim to oust the "ins" by raking up their political antecedents, and proving that their conversion to the triumphant cause has been suspiciously recent. Washington, at the beginning of a new presidential term, fairly swarms with thousands of seekers after office. They besiege the new ministers, and the President himself, in eager multitudes; they often proceed to the departments escorted by their members of Congress, who zealously urge their claims upon the dispensers of official gifts; they file their folios of papers, recommendations, petitions, and so on, until the department rooms are choked with them. It is a sore besieging, half-famished army, each private of which is the bitter rival of every other, but which joins in the common assault upon the new powers that be. The guillotine of political proscription soon begins to fall daily upon the luckless occupants of clerkships, of con-

sulates, as well as of great missions and bureaux. He is a fortunate man who survives this critical period, who, having enjoyed a four years' possession, sees the office-seeking hosts reluctantly fade away, leaving him still moored at his haven. Of those who go out, many have spent their income as fast as they received it, and, unskilled in profession or trade, are sent adrift without means, often at middle age, upon the plodding world outside the tranquil round of official life. Still, it is not usually a wholesale proscription; many remain for years; and the best clerks are always the safest. The ministers doubtless aim to weed out the less efficient. Political services and creed cannot be justly said to be the only conditions of appointment; efficiency is, in most cases, honestly regarded.

Whether this practice of rotation in office is a wholly bad one may be doubted. It is certainly far too extensively exercised in America; but it has, perhaps, some advantages. It puts the whole machinery of the government into accord with the policy of the administration; it infuses new life into the public service; it affords an opportunity for the Secretaries to get rid of an excessive civil force, and thus to economise; it enables them to weed out the indolent, the inefficient, and the corrupt, and to exercise judgment in the new selections. The men who go in are as efficient as, if less skilled than, those who go out. A long retention of office is almost certain to produce listlessness, neglect, and a decrease of energy

in its exercise. It is bad for the office-holders themselves. A change once in four years brings new energies, more active habits into the public service; and if the office-holder, knowing the precarious tenure he has, relies upon it as a permanency, it is his own fault: he has full notice to quit in the general custom. It is true that it is not usually to be expected that good men should abandon a more permanent occupation to take office, when its tenure is so uncertain and so brief. But America is a very different country from England. The population is not so fixed and settled; men pass easily from one occupation to another; they like change; they are adventurous, and risk more,—so it is that good men *are* found to fill the offices, notwithstanding the liability to removal. The office-seekers are not, after all, so greedy and utterly selfish a race as they are sometimes called. They have worked, most of them, for a cause which they think right; they have aided in its triumph. To desire to hold an office is not criminal or dishonest; the holders of offices do not possess a monopoly of them; one man is as good as another. They reason thus; and, it is not worse reasoning than that of the merchant or the lawyer who seeks, openly and frankly, to put himself in a better position, even though that position is held by another. So long as there is no corruption or bribery used in the pursuit of office—which is indeed too often, yet by no means universally, the case in America—it is not so offensive a thing as it is painted.

There is one error prevalent in Europe in regard to the alleged dangerous excitements of American politics, and the violence and mob influence which are supposed to prevail in American elections, which should be set right. It is not true that mob law dominates the polls; it is not true that the electors are over-awed; it is not true that bloodshed—the use of bowie knives and revolvers—is the usual accompaniment of a political contest. In the most exciting presidential election, perhaps, which has ever occurred—that in the midst of the civil war, when Lincoln and M'Clellan opposed each other—there was, in all that vast extent of country, far less rioting and brawling, less intimidation, less bloodshed, than occurred in England during the general election of 1868, or in the French election of 1869. No scenes worse than those which were enacted at Blackburn have ever occurred in America, hardly even upon the frontiers of the far West, where civilisation has come in contact with half civilisation and barbarism. There is plenty of excitement throughout the country at election time, but it is not a dangerous excitement. The election over, the most perfect public tranquillity follows. The elections, with the exception of one or two of the larger towns and in the far West, invariably pass over in quiet and order. Even in those in which are involved great issues, when the whole administration of the Government is to be changed, there is very rarely anything anywhere bearing the semblance of a riot. There is no constitutional nation in Europe where

elections are less apt to be turbulent than in the United States. The statement that they are mob-governed is a bugbear, the invention of timid brains. Even in New York city, with its crowded population, embracing thousands of low-class foreigners and native "roughs," election disturbances are exceptional. Such disturbances are almost unknown in the New England states, even in the populous cities. Election day, far from being a day of battle, assumes the appearance of a public holiday: small knots of citizens gathered about the polling-rooms; here and there a cheering and shouting group of men and boys parading the streets; committee men busily bringing up indifferent voters; the reading, in the evening, of the telegraphic returns of the election in crowded halls and from exchange steps; a great deal of exulting and cheering, music and torch-light bearing, illuminations and gun-firing, later in the night, when the result is known or well guessed,—these are the obtrusive features of election day in America.

In the South, before the civil war, politics were much more entirely in the hands of a few rich or educated men than in the North. The South was dominated by a planter and feudal aristocracy, all the more powerful from their possession of the slaves. The white masses of the South were deplorably ignorant, wretchedly poor, and quite under the control of the planters. There were no free schools, and popular education was, if not absolutely prohibited, discouraged

and disliked. The few rich and intelligent therefore managed the nominations and the elections; the people at large had little share in them, and representatives of the slave aristocracy were almost invariably sent to Congress and occupied the higher state offices. It was this class which, finding that it could no longer control, as it long had done, the Federal Government, precipitated civil war, and dragged the poor and ignorant masses of the South after them. It was their own ruin; for defeat in the field meant simply a complete social and political revolution in the South itself, in which there was a transfer of power from the slave oligarchy to the people as a whole, in which the very slaves themselves had their share. The leaders of the old South have probably lost their power for ever. They are disfranchised, and can only regain their political rights by a submission to the changed state of things. There is, and is to be, a new South. Slavery has disappeared, and with it have tumbled all the ramparts which once hedged about the aristocratic, cavalier-descended planter. Free schools are springing up there; the Freedmen's Bureau and George Peabody and the new southern constitutions have planted them, and they are growing and gradually spreading over that humiliated and prostrate section, letting in upon the poor whites the altogether novel light of education. The franchise is granted to them, and encourages them to respect themselves and to fit themselves for self-government. Emigration from the North and from

foreign lands has learned the way to the rich Virginia valleys and the luxuriant Georgian and Louisianian rice, sugar, and cotton fields. A new and enterprising commonwealth is taking the place of the old and exhausted one. For the first time in American history, truly republican institutions, social and political, are taking root in the South. In the period of re-formation, there must be commotion, occasional discouragement, occasional spasmodic resistance from the lingering elements of a dying system; but the process goes on, and its fruits already begin to appear. The former slaves are manifestly struggling up to real citizenship and political responsibility. There are in the South negro meetings and conventions, negro editors and orators, negro members of legislatures, candidates for Congress, and lieutenant-governors. More than one prominent coloured man in the South has displayed an undeniable capacity for government and legislation. Those who show such a capacity, and those who show the lesser capacity for a reasoning use of the ballot, will increase and will maintain their political and civil status in the new order of things.

A glance at the measures taken by the national Congress to "reconstruct" the southern states, will suffice to give an idea of the change which is occurring in the spirit of the political institutions of that part of the country, and the new character which is given to the southern states by their reorganisation. First, immediately after the close of the war, the states lately

in rebellion were divided into five military districts, governed by generals of the army, who enforced order by the aid of their troops. The object of this was to restore to something like tranquillity a section exhausted yet still irritated by a hopeless defeat. The commanders of the districts were instructed to protect all the inhabitants in person and property, to suppress insurrections, to prevent disorder and violence, and to punish at discretion all disturbers of the public order. At the same time Congress made provisions whereby the southern states could, by forming republican state constitutions, and including in them certain guarantees against any future rebellion, resume their places as component parts of the Federal Union. These new constitutions were required to be harmonious in all respects with the constitution of the United States; they were to be framed by conventions of delegates, elected by the male citizens over twenty-one years of age, without distinction of race, colour, or condition, excluding from the vote those who were disfranchised because of a participation in the rebellion, and criminals; they must contain in their provisions the granting of the suffrage to all male citizens, of whatever race or colour, over twenty-one years of age, not already disfranchised for acting in the rebellion; they must be submitted to and ratified by a majority of such persons; they must then be submitted to Congress for its approval. Previously to readmittance as a state with full privileges, however, it was ordained that each

southern state must ratify the fourteenth amendment to the Constitution of the United States. This amendment provides that all persons born and naturalised in the United States are citizens; that no state shall make any law abridging civil rights, or deprive citizens of those rights, except by due process of law. The basis of representation in each state is reduced if male citizens of the United States twenty-one years old are denied the suffrage. No person can be a member of either House of Congress, a presidential elector, or an officer of the United States or of any state, who, having taken an oath as a United States or state officer, military, civil, or judicial, to support the national Constitution, has engaged in rebellion against it, or given aid or comfort to its enemies. Congress can, however, by a two-thirds vote, remove this disability, and has, as a fact, removed it from a large number of former confederates. The amendment also declares that the validity of the public debt shall not be questioned, and repudiates and declares void the Confederate debt. This amendment has been ratified according to law, and is now a part of the national Constitution; and the states of Alabama, Arkansas, Florida, Georgia, Louisiana, North Carolina, and South Carolina having complied with the conditions of Congress, as stated, have been restored to their places among their sister states, and their Senators and Representatives now sit once more in the Capitol. Texas, Virginia, and Mississippi are not yet "reconstructed," but will doubt-

less resume their places as states ere long. Many of the new state constitutions embody liberal provisions for free education, and compare favourably in other respects with those of the northern states. So untrue is it that the military force in the South exercised political tyranny, that nearly every southern state voted, in the presidential election of 1868, for Mr. Seymour, the Democratic candidate, the military forces being, the while, under the immediate command of General Grant, his opponent.

CHAPTER X.

THE RURAL FREE SCHOOLS: *A glimpse at a rustic schoolhouse—How free schools sprang up—Their system—Country teachers, male and female.*

You cannot stroll far on a rustic American road without being struck by certain modest, homely, one-storied frame buildings, sometimes painted red and sometimes white, which stand more often a little aside from the highway, and to reach which you must pass over a pretty plot of grass. Every two or three miles you come upon one of these snug unpretentious buildings; they are quite unlike anything seen in European countries, and you cannot but wonder what they are. If it is summer—when the country air is laden with fragrant smells, and you are greeted with the thousand rustic sounds of insect, bird, and reptile—when the sun beats down hot upon the earth, and you are fain to rest on the road-side bank, laden with fruit and flower-bearing bushes, you perceive that the windows of the building are wide open; and it will not be long before a monotonous buzzing sound, now pausing, now resuming, comes through them, rousing your attention. You are in America, where people do not stand on

ceremony, and where, if they have curiosity, they are fain to satisfy it. Approach, glance in at the open window, and you will see a sight, homely, yet most suggestive. If you have observed the almost universal intelligence of the American, whether rich or humble, and that you will rarely find one, even in the remotest village, who does not read and write—if you have wondered how this is—here, in this little red building, you have your answer. It is the RURAL SCHOOL. Cozy and cool and busy, refreshed by the gentle breezes which invade the open windows, here are gathered the young hopefuls, who have come for miles around to con their reading, writing, and arithmetic. Little rude desks and benches—often sadly lacked and whittled by the inevitable penknife—stand in rows across the room; a few maps and blackboards compose the garnishment of the walls; the roof is low, the single apartment small. At one end is a slightly raised plain desk; and here sits, likely enough, a rosy, bright-eyed damsel of eighteen, the daughter, perhaps, of some neighbouring farmer, who is armed with the symbolic ferrule, and divides her attention between the little class which is reciting on the bench before her and the restless ones who are playing antics at the desks beyond. They are boys and girls together—you observe, however, that the girls sit on one side of the schoolroom and the boys on the other, as in a Quaker meeting. Mostly quite small boys and misses—the oldest thirteen or fourteen—for it is summer, and the big boys are abroad in the fields,

helping "father" with the mowing, or "geeing" and "hawing" the oxen to mill. They are dressed—these brown-cheeked, hardy, keen-eyed children—plainly, but with scrupulous neatness; the little boys' jackets and the little girls' aprons are as starch and clean as if it were their first wearing. There are, perhaps, between thirty and forty of them; some are bent over their dog-eared, well-worn books, the frown studious wrinkling their foreheads, their hands deep in hair, overcoming with difficulty the knotty points in their lessons; others are slyly whispering, or pulling each other's ears; that fat little fellow in the corner is watching the teacher, with a view to having a premature taste of his luncheon when her head is turned. The lads and lasses who are reciting on the bench just in front of the mistress are working with a will; it was the hum of their effort to spell this word right or add up that sum which you heard through the open window. The schoolmistress apparently knows her duty well: she is quick to correct the errors of the little class before her; she keeps a keen watch over the rest, and ever and anon stops the lesson to reprove the transgressors of scholarly order; she is, withal, patient and hard-working, and is gentle with the boys and girls committed to her care. Noon comes, and with it the bustle and hilarity of adjourning for recess. The teacher, premising that she wants to speak to Lucy Brown or Johnny Thompson after school, tells the scholars that recess hour has arrived: all at once be-

gins a merry chatting and laughing, a scrambling for satchels, a rush for the door, the scholars crowding for a moment around the pegs in the entry where the caps, bonnets, and hoods are hung, then hurrying out to the road, to catch up with boon companions or hasten home to dinner. A few remain behind, and linger about the teacher's desk, talking and laughing with her, or listening humbly to her counsel; others sit at their desks, produce from their satchels little paper parcels, which, unfolded, reveal sandwiches and home-made pies, apples, grapes, and jam. These live at too great a distance to go home, and therefore must dine at the school; their homely repast over, they too escape from the scene of their studies, ramble out upon the road, scale the fences, and wander off into the fields and woods, whiling away the hour's grace by picking berries, or playing "tag" in the soft mossy vales, or climbing the trees for nuts or fruits; perhaps near by there passes a clear running stream, overhung by drooping trees; in go the lines, out come the shining fish; or there is a splashing of little feet wading about the shallow shore. In America there's room enough for all. Trespass is an unknown sin; you may wander through the fields and woods, across the lawns, by river bank, or along shaded dell, where and when you please, never fearing gamekeeper, bailiff, or watchdog, warned off by no landlord's sign, "Beware!" In an hour, back troop the scholars, playing, romping, laughing as they come, loth to obey the teacher's moni-

tory bell, putting off to the last instant their return to schoolroom quiet. Then more lessons are heard; these over, the teacher calls on the school to sing "From Greenland's icy mountains," or "Away, away to school," in which all join, large and small, with high cheery voices, filling the rustic solitude with a pleasant sound. How lovely are the voices of children, breaking in harmoniously on the quiet of the country! At four the school closes for the day; many of the children stay about the schoolhouse, playing their various games; the teacher walks home surrounded by a little bevy of her scholars, who emulate each other in getting nearest to her, and to whom she awards her smiles, studious to please each one.

The rural, or town, or common school—it is spoken of in all of these ways—is the starting point and cornerstone of American education. The worthy farmers or village tradesmen to whom the lads and lasses above described belong pay no tuition for their schooling. Every boy and girl in America—excepting in the southern states, where education until lately was discouraged—is given the opportunity to learn; they may all have a good education free. To learn to read and write, to parse, and "do sums," to know geography and history, they have only to attend the free schools, which are plentiful everywhere, and the advantages of which are to be had for the asking. It was one of the first cares of the founders of the American colonies to establish schools; they relied upon educa-

tion to build up the state which they fondly imagined for the future. The Puritans who left England, and betook themselves to the bleak shores of the western continent, first established a church, then common schools. Each settlement was a commonwealth; and each one, almost as soon as it was located, founded its school, to which every child, as soon as it was old enough, resorted. As the settlements increased and extended over the country, each little community built a school, taxed itself to maintain it, and fostered it with tender care. So sprang up gradually that common school system which lies at the base of American institutions, which has given those institutions a spirit peculiar to themselves, and which now puts it into every man's power—be he wealthy merchant or hard-drudging labourer—to give the great boon of education to his child. I have already described the townships, which were the original political divisions in America, and the beginnings of the present American Republic. The culture of the mind has advanced with that of the soil from the landing of the Mayflower to this day. It was, and still is, the townships which provide and maintain the common schools. Each township is divided into several school districts; each district has its school. There are, therefore, schoolhouses such as have been described in every two or three miles square, situated as near the centre of the district as is convenient. The manner in which these schools are supported and controlled is as simple as possible. At the

town meetings—held annually in every township, and composed of all its male inhabitants—a school tax, adequate to sustain all the schools in the township, is voted, and is afterwards collected by the selectmen, the town executive; at the same time, a school committee is elected by ballot. It is the duty of this committee to examine candidates for teaching, to distribute the funds voted by the town among the districts, and to exercise a general supervision over the schools. A tax is voted large enough to keep the schools in session during six months in the year, three in summer, and three in winter. Sometimes, however, one of the school districts—of which, as has been said, there are several in a township—may wish to have more time devoted to schooling. In that case the people of the district meet—here, let it be observed, is a community yet smaller than the township, which in certain respects is self-governing—and vote an additional tax; this, added to its share of the town funds, enables the school to be held for a longer period. The district also elects a school committee, charged with the supervision of its own school. The town school committee examines whatever candidates present themselves for the teachers' places; the district school committee then elects, from the candidates who have passed this examination, a teacher for its own school; its choice is confined to those who possess the certificate of the town committee. Most of the states have school funds which they divide among the districts; and, generally speak-

ing, the school taxes levied by the town and district are very light, and do not weigh at all upon the poorer citizens, who nevertheless enjoy the privileges of the school equally with their well-to-do neighbours. All children residing in the school district, of whatever race, colour, or condition, are admitted to the common school education. There is no distinction of class, either in the treatment of the scholars or the arrangement of the schools. The only requisite of admission is neatness of dress and person. Side by side you will find the tidy son of the opulent farmer and the poorly-clad daughter of his Irish labourer. Often you will see in these free schools woolly-headed little negroes, sandwiched between white schoolmates, and mingling with them. You may sometimes hear, in the classes, first the nasal twang of the Yankee boy parsing the verb "to be," then the broad brogue of a little Irishman stumbling over a long sentence in his reading book, and next the quaint idiom of a youthful "darkey" reciting his task in eager haste. In the democracy of free education all are equal. The smaller boys and girls go to school both winter and summer, the general rule being, that the school is in session three months in each season. The larger boys and girls usually attend only the winter session: they are farmers' children; the summer is the high-tide of farming; the father wants his able-bodied boys in the fields and woods with him; the mother needs her girls in the dairy and garden. It has become the custom for the

winter schools to be taught by young men, and the summer schools by young women. One reason doubtless is that the larger scholars, who attend only in the winter, are beyond the controlling power of female teachers, and must be confided to the repression of the masculine arm. The foreigner would be surprised to find, however, how large a share of the teaching in America is intrusted to women; and an excellent teacher does the keen, energetic, patient, persevering New England girl make. She is more often the daughter of a farmer, and has a taste for teaching; above all, she has a desire to be useful, and as little as possible a burden to her people. Teaching is a diversion, an excitement in the monotony of rustic life; it gives change of scene and wide acquaintance; the female teacher is quite as good as anybody else, and worthy to associate with the best, even though she does "work for a living." Indeed, working for a living—so long as the work is honest and useful—is never in America a stigma; no one is less a gentleman, less welcome among refined people for that. The male teachers are often students who are pursuing their curriculum at college, and whose poverty necessitates some exertion to meet their college expenses. Three months of school teaching in the winter aids them to get through the collegiate year. The universities and colleges make it a practice to grant leaves of absence in the winter to such students as desire to teach. The young man packs up his slender stock of apparel about

Christmas time, and posts off into the country in search of a "desk." Likely enough he finds a place in the vicinity of his own home; the neighbouring folk have heard of him, and after he has passed the required examination, and has received his certificate, friends interest themselves for him, and one of the district committees elects him to teach their school. He is at once admitted to the best society of the neighbourhood, and, if he have any fun in him, speedily becomes a favourite, taking the lead in getting up picnics and excursions, being indispensable to all the rustic parties, and receiving the hospitality of the parson, the doctor, and the contiguous squires. His salary is not, perhaps, more than twenty dollars (4*l.*) a month; in addition to this he receives his board and lodging. There used to be, in the New England states—and perhaps there is still in some places—a curious custom of setting the schoolmaster up *at auction*. The object of this was to provide him with accommodations as cheaply as possible. The neighbouring farmers were wont to bid with the idea of boarding him, the lowest bidder succeeding in becoming his host during the school session. The school committee would thereby get him housed and fed at the cheapest price—a part of the fund confided to them being devoted to this purpose. Sometimes the teacher was boarded at as low a price as four or five shillings a-week; and he was excellently well provided too. The best bedroom in the farmhouse would be given up to him, with its clean

floor and walls, its faultless white linen, and its fresh rustic smell ; and as for food, it was good and wholesome, and plenty of it. He mingled with the farmer's family as one of them ; would have many a romp with the buxom daughters, many a rollicking ride with their sturdy brothers. A more frequent custom—that mostly in vogue now—is for the teacher to “board around.” He goes to the houses of the children's parents in turn, spending an equal length of time in each of them ; so the burden is evenly divided amongst those who enjoy the advantages of the school. This relieves the school committee from paying his board, and is an indirect and a not unpleasant tax upon the good country folk. He is apt thoroughly to enjoy this change of residence at intervals of a fortnight, for it is a pleasant variety, and he is sure of being everywhere well treated, and of having an excellent time. He is laying by a little for his college expenses ; teaching school by day, he spends his early mornings and evenings in keeping up his college studies, so as not to lag behind his class ; and the while enjoys the pastimes and the fresh air of the country, which give him health and strength with which to resume his college tasks.

There are in the rural districts and small towns few or no “private schools” where tuitions are charged ; these are rendered impracticable by the excellence of the common schools, and their cheapness. The studies in these are the ordinary rudiments of an English primary education, beginning with the alphabet, and ex-

tending to spelling, reading, writing, arithmetic, geography, and history. The children commence going to school at three or four, and most of them continue to attend, three months in each season, until they are seventeen or eighteen. Those whose fathers can spare them go from the common school to the town academies, grammar schools, and high schools, which will be described hereafter; but perhaps the majority finish their education at the former, which is quite sufficient to secure them the boon of intelligence, enables them to understand what is going on in the world, to read and study, to converse well, and to exercise the duties of good citizens and worthy members of society. In these common country schools many of the most eminent American statesmen and scholars learned the first rudiments of their education. Daniel Webster often tenderly reverted to his rustic schooldays in New Hampshire; Beecher, and Greeley, and Lincoln, Longfellow and Irving—many other famous names might be cited—were graduates of the common schools, the results of which may be found everywhere in the prosperity of the Republic.

CHAPTER XI.

THE CITY PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

THE free public schools of the cities and larger towns correspond in most respects to the rural schools I have just described. They are open to all classes and races, they are perfectly free, they are sufficiently numerous to provide instruction for every child in their district, and they are generally much superior to the schools established by private persons and carried on by the payment of high tuitions. Perhaps the best public schools in America are those of Boston, in Massachusetts, which is indeed the centre of educational enterprise and effort. Boston was founded by the Puritans, and its school system is the most ancient and complete in the Union; the Puritan care for education has been inherited by their descendants and successors; the public schools have been constantly fostered, improved, adapted to the later generations, and liberally provided for out of public and private funds. The importance of education with the New Englander almost rises to a religious faith. The Bostonians are peculiarly proud of their public schools, and justly so; it is hard to imagine how they could be made more effective than they are.

Wandering through the irregular and old-fashioned streets of the "Hub," as Boston is facetiously called,* you will here and there come upon a large neat-looking red-brick edifice, some three stories high, surrounded by iron railings, and approached through a small paved court. They are almost as large and substantial as the clubs in Pall Mall, though less ornate; they stand, more often, in a modest side street, flanked on either hand by private residences or shops, and presenting a decided contrast with the contiguous buildings. You imagine them to be public edifices of some sort—libraries, perhaps, or museums; you are far from guessing their real use. Your error will doubtless ere long become apparent; for as you gaze upon the building, wondering what its purpose is, and remarking its neat and quiet air, troops of noisy children come bustling in excited groups out of the door, their green satchels swung carelessly across their arms, their lunch baskets in their hands, perhaps swinging a strap which is tightly clasped around some books, laughing, talking, and pushing, now stopping for a game of "marbles," or to spin rival "tops," now to have a good-humoured wrestle—forgetful, already, of their school tasks, and

* The tradition is, that as a country farmer was approaching Boston in company with a city friend, he espied from afar the great dome of the State House, rising on a hill from the midst of the city. On his inquiring what it was, the city friend replied, "Why, don't you see that it is a great *hub*? That's the hub of the universe!" The resemblance of the dome to the hub of a wheel was sufficiently apparent to justify the jest; and ever since, Boston has been nicknamed the "Hub of the Universe."

merrily uproarious as they recover the freedom of the outer air.

Enter, if you choose ; the "principal," or head teacher, is not only willing but pleased to exhibit the working of his little commonwealth, especially to the curious visitor from abroad. He is proud of it, and he is right. One of the boys, intent on his "marbles" in the court, will conduct you within ; the principal escorts you over the building, explaining the arrangements of the rooms and the methods of study with laudable minuteness. The interior, capacious, airy, clean, fulfils the expectations formed by a view of the outside. The hall is wide, and is supplied with pegs for the boys' hats or the girls' bonnets and capes. Broad staircases, worn by the continual patter of many youthful feet, lead to the schoolrooms above. The walls are clean and whitewashed, the windows large and clear. The building contains perhaps seven or eight spacious and comfortable schoolrooms. On entering one of them, you discover a long narrow platform extending across one of its sides, at either end of which are tables for the teachers ; each room has two teachers. The body of the apartment is provided with sixty or seventy neat little desks, brightly varnished, supplied with an inkstand and a place for pens or pencils, and an aperture—such a one as there is in a table when a drawer has been removed—for books and slates. The seats are small, round, varnished stools, with backs, both desk and stool being securely

fastened to the floor, and each scholar's desk being separate from the others. Along the sides of the room not occupied by the teachers' platform are disposed benches, where the classes sit while they recite; on the walls opposite are charts, maps, and blackboards. There are also, leading out of these main apartments, smaller rooms, provided with benches and teachers' desks, where some of the classes retire to recite, instead of in the main room. One of the favourite exercises of the scholars is to draw maps upon the blackboards, representing boundaries, mountains, rivers, or lakes, by chalk or crayons of various tints. On every side you observe how much attention is given to the comfort and health of the children. In the basement are two large furnaces, which, in winter, communicate plentiful warmth to the main rooms by means of pipes, the outlet into the rooms being by "registers." The smaller apartments have stoves. In the coldest days of the bleak New England winter—when the freezing wind seems to cut through you, and the snow beats fiercely on you, heaping itself in frequent drifts and choking up doors and windows on every hand, and the icicles hang thick and crystalline from roofs and gables—the schoolrooms are as cosy and warm as could be wished. The summer heats, which are hardly less oppressive than the winter, are guarded against by high ceilings, ample ventilation, and wide-open windows. The public schools teach, both by example and by rule, the maxims that "order is heaven's first

law," and that "cleanliness is next to godliness." Both the order and the cleanliness of the schoolrooms are marked and please the eye; the scholar finds everything in its place, and becomes habituated to neatness from a constant contact with it. Throughout the day he is reminded of these virtues: if his books are out of place, he is told to set them right; if he comes to school slovenly, he is advised to exercise greater care in his person hereafter. When, after recess, the scholars return to the schoolroom, they enter it quietly and orderly, bow to the teachers, take their seats, and without more ado resume their books. The "class in geography" is called, and here and there the scholars rise and proceed to the recitation bench in front of the teacher. He questions them in turn, perhaps calls on one to draw a map on the blackboard, and explains any subject that is not clear. Each recitation lasts from half an hour to an hour; and so the recitations follow one another until the time for closing the school arrives, several usually going on at once in different parts of the room or in the little side rooms.

The town is divided into a certain number of school districts, and within these the children of all the inhabitants, without distinction, are educated free of expense. Many a poor Irish workman, many a negro who was once a slave, sees his boy or girl learning to read and write, and at the same time acquiring neat and orderly habits. Although it is true that the children of the poor as well as the rich are admitted to the

blessings of the public schools, the well-to-do citizens almost invariably prefer them to private establishments, especially for boys. The contact with the poorer children does not seem to injure the manners or morals of the richer; while the association with the well brought up does undoubtedly benefit the former. The child of the ignorant and poor is subjected to the best influences; he is confronted everywhere with order and cleanliness, with good manners, with the emulation to learn and to advance; and he is infected by the spirit of the place. He has a half-conscious appreciation of his own condition, and, as he grows older, becomes anxious to improve it. The rewards of the school, the favour of the teachers, even the respect of his mates, are on the side of good behaviour. The schools are provided for by taxes, as are those of the rural districts; they are controlled by school committees, who are elected by popular suffrage, and they have over them a general "superintendent" chosen by the school committees. The sexes are in most cases separated; sometimes the schoolhouse is divided, so that one side of it is for girls, the other for boys. The girls' schools are presided over by a middle-aged male teacher, his assistants being young women. The latter are usually paid about 600 dollars (120*l.*) a-year, the principal having more than double that amount. The boys are taught by male preceptors, usually professional teachers, who either devote their lives to this work, or aim to become professors at the universities. The teachers

are selected from those who pass an examination held for the purpose, to which all candidates are admitted who choose to present themselves; the selection is made according to the best examination. They are mostly university graduates, but are not necessarily so. The public schools continue from September to July, with certain periods of recess and holiday; there is a week or more of holiday at Christmas and at Easter; and on the fourth of July (Independence Day), the 22d of February (Washington's birthday), and the last Thursday in November (when occurs the good old Puritan festivity of "Thanksgiving"), the day is given for the scholars to have a frolic in. The months of July and August constitute the long vacation. All of the public schools in Boston are attended several days in the week by musical professors, who give them musical instruction, and the children are hence noted choral singers. There are three grades in these schools: the primary, in which are taught the simpler studies, and where the children begin their education; the public school proper, where the scholars learn geography, grammar, arithmetic, declaiming, and composition, and, in the upper classes, Latin, astronomy, and history; and the "Latin" or "high" school. The Latin school conducts the scholar to higher branches, and introduces him to the classical studies. In order to be admitted to it, he must have passed through all the classes in the public school. Here he is prepared, and thoroughly prepared, to enter the universities, to

“fit for college,” as the Americans say. He continues Latin grammar, and begins Greek grammar; he proceeds to the Latin and Greek readers, reaches Æsop, Cæsar, and Sallust, and is especially drilled in the syntax and grammar of the classics. He usually finishes his Latin preparation with Virgil’s *Æneid*, and his Greek with the first few books in Homer’s *Iliad*; he has been taught to scan, to translate, to trace the derivation of words, and to post himself in mythology and ancient geography; he has also exercised himself in Latin prose composition. Meanwhile, he pursues the higher English branches, finishing arithmetic, beginning algebra and geometry, chemistry, and natural philosophy. A boy will ordinarily be six or seven years in passing through the various free schools. When he has finished the Latin school course, he is well fitted either to pass the university examinations and pursue his education there, or to turn to commercial pursuits; and from one end of his education to the other he has not paid a penny for instruction. Even the text books which he studies need cost him nothing. There are funds provided for the purchase of a text book library for each school, in order to save this expense to the poorer children. An application from his parents will open this library to the scholar. When he enters the school, he is supplied with a full set of books which he is to study; as he advances from one class to another he gives up the books which he has finished, and these are passed in turn to another scholar

who is about to pursue the same studies; and the promoted boy receives a new set of books adapted to the studies which he has now taken up. So the books descend from one scholar to another through all the classes. The Latin school is confined to boys; but the high schools and grammar schools in the rural towns, which nearly correspond with it, are open to the girls as well. Much more attention is paid in the United States to the education of girls than formerly. More than one college admits them to pursue its curriculum, and if they succeed in passing creditably through the four years' course, grants the "sweet girl graduates" appropriate degrees. Although the Latin school is not yet open to her, the girl's education is not usually considered as ended when she graduates from the public school. Very many are sent "to finish off" at some fashionable boarding school in the country, or to some select private school in the city. At the public school the range of studies has been confined to the simplest branches of instruction; the girl graduates from it a good reader, well up in her arithmetic, geography, grammar, and history, is a fair writer, and has acquired some ease in composition. Before, however, she can become the "accomplished young lady," which it is the ambition of her parents to see her, she must devote her attention to French and Italian, to botany and astronomy, to geometry and general literature. Leaving the public schools at fourteen or fifteen, she emerges from the boarding or private school at seventeen or

eighteen, her education as complete as it ever will be, and her school life done with for ever.

There are in many of the states, besides the schools already mentioned, certain establishments called "Normal Schools." These are among the most valuable of educational institutions. Their main design is to educate young men and women to be *teachers*; and they are, like the other public schools, quite free. They are a great boon, especially to those young women who are unable to incur the expense of the private boarding schools, and who either wish to adopt teaching as a profession, or to continue their studies beyond the regular course of the public schools. In some of the Normal Schools both sexes are admitted; but the larger portion of them are devoted to young women. The average age of entering the Normal Schools is eighteen, and of graduation twenty-one. Although the education of teachers is the main object, they do not adopt this as a stringent rule; but others are often admitted to finish their education, even if they do not intend to teach. The girls who have proved themselves good scholars at the lower schools are, upon application, admitted to the advantages of the Normal Schools. The course occupies, according to the assiduity or cleverness of the scholar, from three to four years. The studies are naturally chosen with a view to the profession which the large majority of the scholars are to pursue. The classics, the higher branches of mathematics, mental and natural philosophy, geology, astronomy, and botany,

the modern languages, and history, are the principal topics. At graduation, the Normal School student is probably as far advanced as the university youth who has completed his second (Sophomore) year. The graduate of the Normal School is almost necessarily a well-educated woman. To her is to be confided the teaching "the young sprout how to grow;" the fate of the rising generation is in her hands. She is therefore not only called upon to submit to severe and repeated examinations in the studies she has pursued, but she is also drilled in taste, and in the art of governing children. The very fact of her entering the Normal School proves that she has both the will and the taste necessary to be a successful teacher: to such this system is a substantial blessing. The graduate of the Normal School never has to look long for a teacher's desk. In the state of Massachusetts there are four Normal Schools, one of which is presided over by a lady; and the total of scholars in all of these is between five and six hundred. Throughout the United States there are forty-three state Normal Schools, besides seven city Normal Schools. In the South more than thirty Normal Schools have been established for negro freedmen; in the West there are some county and private Normal Schools.

The discipline used in the American public schools becomes milder every year; the pedagogue is ceasing to be an avenging and wrathful deity, whose frown is terrible and his smile suspicious. It is becoming the

rule to govern the children by persuasion and gentle means. Corporeal punishment is becoming extinct, is getting to be a disagreeable tradition. The bodily punishment of girls has almost everywhere disappeared; and boys are no longer subjected to those cruel devices which have been transmitted by less humane generations. Even the comparatively gentle ferrule is losing its familiar place on the teacher's desk; and birches, for the most part, continue to grow unmolested in their native forests. Children can be and are successfully governed without Solomonic tortures. Sir Roger de Coverley—who thought Dr. Busby “a very great man; he whipped my grandfather!”—would stand aghast, could he rise from his grave and visit an American school, to see that, from one day's end to the other, no boy or girl was brought under cow-hide vengeance, or held over a bench and thumped. There is a story told of a Quaker pedagogue who read his Bible and flogged one-fourth of his scholars regularly every morning at nine o'clock. Kindness, patience, gentle firmness are the rule in American schools, and they work well. In no long time corporeal punishment of boys, as it is now of girls, will be abolished. Children may henceforth play under the birchen trees, and looking on them, no longer shape them

“into rods, and tingle at the view.”

It is unnecessary to say that no religion is taught in the American public schools; children of all sects attend indiscriminately, Catholic as well as Methodist,

Unitarian as well as Orthodox. The teacher, if he pleases, opens the school by reading a brief passage from the Bible; perhaps he repeats the Lord's Prayer. There is never an attempt to lead the scholars to this sect or that; they are essentially "secular" schools. Their daily sessions begin at eight in summer, and nine in winter; at eleven there is a short recess of ten minutes; at twelve, a long recess of two hours; and the afternoon session extends from two to four in winter, and from two to five in summer. On the Wednesday and Saturday of each week the schools are dismissed at twelve, thus giving the scholars two weekly half-holidays.

An account of the "credits" and "demerits" of each scholar is kept by the teachers; a credit mark being given for a good recitation, a demerit mark for whispering, or other transgression of the rules. These are cast up at the end of each month, and the scholars take rank according to the added sum of their credits, the demerits of each scholar being subtracted from his credits, and thus lowering his rank. Those who obtain a certain number of merits during the month have the satisfaction of carrying home to their parents a fancifully-printed card, declaring that "Master ——" has merited the approbation of his teachers during the period mentioned. With what light hearts those bits of fancifully-adorned paper, with their flourishes and allegorical pictures and teacher's autograph, are hastily carried homeward, and gleefully displayed, and carefully

preserved in albums and treasure drawers, many readers must know from their own school experiences. The writer has many such a one, he is glad to say, awarded by the public school of his early youth, stowed away among later relics, which bring to mind a host of heart leavings and hurried home runnings. Besides these lesser rewards, the annual "examination days" bring a very harvest of treasures—mostly books and silver medals—to the faithful workers of the year.

The examination day is the "commemoration" of the public schools. It is their gala day. The exercises consist of examinations by the committee, an awful body, whose very name is a terror to the scholars; then declamations, dialogues, composition reading, and the awarding of the prizes of the year. They take place in a large hall, crowded with the parents and friends of the boys and girls; for the latter, as well as the former, declaim and read compositions on the stage on the examination day.

CHAPTER XII.

AMERICAN ACADEMIES: Their system—The poorer scholars—Teachers' boarding houses, studies, exhibitions—Everyday life at the academy—Sports and pastimes.

THERE is scarcely a village or small town in the northern states which does not possess either its academy or seminary, its grammar or high school. The latter, the grammar or high schools, are, like the schools already sketched, free, established by the town, superintended by the elected school committee, and supported by public taxation. It is their purpose to give the scholars who have finished with the common schools a more complete education—to instruct them in the classics, the higher rudiments of grammar, and the more difficult branches of English study. The farmer's boy is, in the grammar or high school, well "finished off;" he becomes a really good scholar, a substantially-educated man. He learns Latin and French, botany and philosophy, chemistry and composition.

The academy or seminary is a different affair. It is not free; it is not controlled by the town; it is a private corporation; it is supported from the income of munificent private bequests, and is therefore what would be called in England an "endowed school." The

object of the academies is, like that of the grammar or high schools, to continue the education begun in the common schools, and to fit boys for the college or university. The academies charge tuitions for instruction. They are generally preferred to the grammar schools by those who can afford to place their children in them. The endowments enable them to pay higher salaries to teachers, and hence to command greater ability. Some of the academies in New England have attained a national fame for their excellence, and especially for the completeness with which they fit boys for the university. Phillips Academy at Andover, and Phillips Academy at Exeter, Williston Seminary at East Hampton, Lawrence Academy at Groton, Cheshire Academy in Connecticut, and others, are noted for their admirable systems of instruction, their discipline, and the learning and practical capacity of their professors. Many of the academies are denominational; that is, they are founded by wealthy gentlemen of a particular sect, the trustees and teachers belong to that sect, and the prevailing sphere is sectarian,—the services in chapel, for instance, being conducted according to a certain sectarian form. But in none of them is sectarianism thrust upon the scholars, much less stipulated as a condition of entering. Boys of all denominations attend them, and are in every way as well cared for and treated as those of the favourite creed. At all of the academies you will find Catholic and Episcopalian, Unitarian and Baptist boys, mingling together without

distinction. The institutions which have been mentioned are mostly Congregational academies ; yet every year many boys go from them to colleges where another faith prevails. It has become a custom for particular academies to fit boys for particular universities. Exeter and Lawrence send a majority of their graduates to Harvard University ; the larger part of the East Hampton and Andover boys go to Yale University ; most of the Cheshire boys enter at Trinity College, Hartford. This is not, however, a universal rule ; for many Andover boys go to Harvard, many Exeter boys to Yale, and so on. The academies, situated as they are in the country towns, receive many scholars—perhaps most of them—from a distance ; from the cities and larger towns. Some receive both girls and boys, others only boys. It is at the academies that the boys are first separated from their homes, learn self-dependence and the first lessons of manliness with their Homer and Virgil. It is a foretaste of university life ; here they are prepared for a university career, both in their studies, and by living on equal terms with their companions, subjected only to the government of their instructors, and deprived of home indulgence and its too tender partialities. . The expense of sending boys to the academies—owing to the reasonable tuition fees, and the cheapness of country living—is not great. If they are not too extravagant in dress, or too fond of spending pocket money, they may reside comfortably at the academy for 200 or 300 dollars a-year (40*l.* to 60*l.*).

The regular academy course is from three to six years. Much depends on the progress the scholar has already made, on his application and natural quickness. As fast as he is prepared, he is promoted from class to class; there is not a hard and fast line keeping the boy in a class for a certain fixed period, tying him to duller scholars, or making him "hop, skip, and jump," superficially running over his lessons, to keep up with more precocious students. While, therefore, slow-headed youths are six years trudging over the ground, quicker wits accomplish it in three. Many of the academies contain from a hundred and fifty to two hundred boys, divided into classes according to their capabilities. Some enter as early as eleven or twelve; you may also now and then find bearded men of thirty, perhaps with wives and families, mingling their deep bass with the squeak of the twelve-year-old or the broken tones of adolescent seventeen. An instance of so mature a scholar may be related.

A labouring young man, the son of a farmer, and ambitious to reach a higher sphere of life than that in which he found himself, went at twenty-three to California, and worked hard for several years in the gold mines, meantime carrying on, in the evening and early morning, a course of reading and study. Time passed on; in ten years after his arrival in the "Golden State" he found himself married, and the father of three children, the possessor of a very respectable sum saved from his wages, and a fair scholar in the ordi-

nary English branches, and in the elements of Latin grammar. At thirty-three he returned to the Atlantic coast with his family, and despite the annoyances and inconveniences to which he would be subjected, bravely went to Groton, took a small house, and informed the principal of the academy that he wished to enter the school and prepare for the university, detailing to him meanwhile his circumstances. Each of the academies are fortunately so far endowed as to enable the institution to lend material aid to poor scholars; and our heroic family man, receiving this assistance, was able to take his place in the classes, and finally to graduate, and enter the university. I learned that he afterwards graduated from the university with high honours, ranking third in his class, and is now the editor of one of the most respected and influential journals in the West.

The academies receive, besides the city boys and "boarding scholars," many boys who live in the neighbourhood,—sons of farmers, country tradesmen, parsons, village doctors, and so on,—who attend the academy daily, being called in distinction "day scholars." Many of these country youths attend the academy only in the winter term, working in the summer seasons upon the farms, planting and harvesting.

The academic year is divided into three terms. It begins towards the first of September, the first session ending about Christmas, when a vacation of two weeks ensues. Resuming early in January, the

second term closes at Easter, and then there is a three weeks' holiday. The third term closes at the beginning of July, the long vacation including July and August. While the sons of parents who are well-to-do return to their homes, or visit country uncles, or go to the seaside or mountain resorts, the poorer boys are fain to spend the weeks of recreation in the sober effort to "keep above water." There are energetic fellows who not only attend the academies, but support themselves there. The struggle for an education is, to the poorer youths, a hard and bitter one; yet there are many—so highly is education prized in northern America, so fine a start in life does it give—who work their way through with a perseverance altogether admirable. While their richer and gayer companions hasten off, the first day of vacation, to seize the delights of holiday ease and absence of care, these often remain in the academy town, and work, if anything, harder than in term time. To provide for the expenses of the ensuing year, they will hire themselves out to work on the neighbouring farms; they will teach school in the winter; they will act as clerks in the country shops; perhaps they will find some writing to do at the village lawyer's; they have been known to assist in putting a new coat of paint on the academy building, and to help in the erection of a new gymnasium for the academy use. And their labours are not confined to vacation time. The aid given by the academies to the poorer scholars is more or less substantial: sometimes they have their

tuition free ; sometimes to this are added their rooms, and even board. The task of cleaning and sweeping the academy halls and corridors, of lighting the fires, doing errands for the teachers, acting as monitors over their companions, are given to the poorer boys, for which they are charged less, or even nothing, for the academy privileges. There is no system of "fagging"—or anything similar—at the American academies. The boys who work for their education are seldom snubbed by their well-to-do mates, but associate with them freely, partake of their amusements, and are as well treated in every way by the teachers. There are sometimes tyrannical boys who seek to impose upon them ; the teachers, however, soon put a stop to such conduct, regarding the working scholars as their peculiar care, and doubtless respecting their energy and self-denial most of all. Such boys, as is not surprising, make the best and most successful men ; the most honoured graduates of the academies are not seldom found to be those who worked their way through ; who did "chores" and made fires, farmed in vacation, and gave up many a pastime, to get an education.

The boys from a distance find no difficulty in procuring board in the academy town. There are always families who are willing to take them ; and it is rarely that they do not find among the simple country folk kindness, and many of the comforts of home. It is often the case that, attached to the academy, there is a boarding house kept purposely for the scholars, in

charge of one of the under teachers ; here will be found the larger part of the school, and here there is jollity and noise enough—for they are far from being Dothe-boy Halls, and there is plenty of room and food. The experience at this teacher's boarding house is not soon forgotten ; at a distance of fifteen years, the writer remembers every detail of his experience there, though the schoolroom incidents have mostly faded away. To be sure, it was somewhat crowded, and there were here and there ugly boys who tormented ; four in a room were rather too many, and you ran some risk in the temper of your bedfellow. Sometimes you could not study well for the noise, and occasionally you found yourself tied to the bedpost when the bell for morning prayers rang. But, with all the little annoyances, it was a happy, joyous life, and friendships life-long were sealed there, and it stored up for ever pleasant memories in the mind.

Most of the academy boys, as has been said, are studying for the university ; and as the American universities require, for admission, a severe examination, the academy studies and drilling have this object in view. Minute attention is given to the *grammars* of Greek and Latin in all their parts, geography, English grammar, arithmetic mental and oral, composition, declaiming, history, astronomy, and algebra ; and in the more advanced classes, Playfair's Euclid, Sallust, Cæsar, and Virgil, Greek Reader, Homer, and Ovid, are pursued. There are also classes for those scholars who

are not going to college, but who intend to pass from the academy into mercantile or professional life. These study bookkeeping, accounts, double entry, engineering, surveying, chemistry, or geology, according to the chosen occupation of each. On certain afternoons in every week the school assembles together in one of the halls, and there ensues a sort of exhibition. Compositions are read, dialogues are enacted, declamations are given, and there is plenty of lively singing. The boys ascend the teacher's platform, from which his desk has been removed to make room for them, and "spread themselves" in stripling grandiloquence. In the habit of public speaking thus acquired may perhaps be seen the reason for that almost universal forensic facility which Americans are said to possess. Here are the embryo stump orators and members of Congress, the future concocters of congratulatory addresses, and prolific editors. Before they reach the university, many of them have become facile speakers and writers: often their literary fame precedes them to future Alma Mater, and when they arrive there, they find themselves welcomed and already honoured sons. In the academies where there are girl scholars, these, too, join in the weekly exhibitions, read their compositions and perform their dialogues, not seldom rivalling their ruder companions in these arts. The academies are situated in fine healthy localities, surrounded by cheerful pretty scenery, and having all the advantages which the country confers, and which arise from a separation

from city temptations and distractions. Hence exercise of the body, as of the mind, is gained.

The building used by the school is ordinarily one of the most prominent in the village,—a high plain wooden edifice, painted red, yellow, or white, surmounted by a steeple and belfry. Inside it is as cosy and comfortable as are the city schools: long pipes convey warmth through hall and corridor; high windows admit plenty of air; the desks are plain and solid, and are apt to be well worn and *whittled* at the rims; the benches of a healthy hardness. To the Englishman, the academy, as well as all other buildings in America, surprises by its appearance of *newness*. It is a strange and singular contrast to hoary old Eton, with its massive ancient walls, its historic venerableness betraying itself from every niche and tracing, its painted windows and antique towers. Historic memories, with the Yankee academy, are few and recent. Its Grays, Coleridges, Addisons, have yet to reflect a scholarly renown, and leave honoured names to favourite walks, or scratched on the college panes. The building has a sloping roof of shingle, and blinds painted a vivid green; you ascend to the wide door by several stone steps. The rooms are spacious, supplied more often by a great tight stove, whence pipes extend along the ceiling. Maps, charts, blackboards, garnish the walls, and the teacher's desk is on a platform at one end. Perhaps there are several rooms of this sort,

each under the charge of a teacher, the principal presiding over that containing the older scholars.

A sketch of the daily life of the academy boy residing with the sub-teacher, from his up-rising to his down-lying, will give, perhaps, the best idea of what the academy really is.

On his arrival, he finds that the habit of late rising is treated with no leniency whatever. He is put into a dormitory with three other boys, one of them being an older scholar, having a supervision over the others. Here his trunk is duly deposited, and a small space in one of the closets or wardrobes is shown him where he may hang his Sunday clothes. Promptly at seven in the morning he hears the deep sonorous hand bell in the passage calling him to prayers. He has only time to dress, and descends with his chums to the parlour, where his preceptor and host is already seated, having before him a ponderous family Bible. The boys take their seats around the room, and the teacher reads a chapter, keeping the while half an eye on them. The reading over, a short prayer closes the exercise. From prayers the boys proceed to breakfast. There they are served with coffee or tea, bread and butter, and cold meat, or perhaps ham and eggs—a frugal meal, designed to inculcate habits of health and simple living. Breakfast is over by a quarter past eight, and then the boys have a short season for recreation, which is enjoyed in various ways, according to the disposition of each. The younger

ones are not yet beyond tops and marbles and kites ; others sit about the lawn reading favourite story books ; others go to the base-ball ground, or hasten off to the river or pond for a morning plunge into the water ; the more studious or ambitious, not quite sure of their lessons, have hastened to the schoolrooms, and are already bent, with the frown contemplative, over their desks. Often the teacher will go off for a brisk walk with five or six of his boys, and entertain them by a not too pedantic conversation. At a quarter before nine the great academy bell begins to ring, and the day scholars are flocking up in eager or studious groups ; this bell is to warn the boys that in a quarter of an hour they are expected to be at their seats in school, and ready for the day's tug of war. At two minutes before nine the bell swings again, and now begins to peal forth a long-drawn warning toll. The principal of the academy is seen to go in and take his place at his desk ; the boys are crowding hurriedly in at the door ; in a moment more the bell has stopped, and all is tranquil about the academy lawn, except that here and there a tardy boy comes desperately hurrying up, and disappears in a twinkling from the outsider's vision.

The school day opens with prayers in the principal's room, the whole school being assembled to hear them, after which each boy goes to his own room. The classes begin to be called, each class consisting of perhaps twenty scholars, who take their seats, books in hand,

on long benches immediately before the teacher's desk. The recitations last from three-quarters of an hour to an hour; each boy is called up in turn, and reads, or spells, or works a sum, or parses, or pronounces his Latin text, the teacher being careful not to examine him on that part of the lesson immediately following what has just been recited. The teacher has his book of merits and demerits, and notes each recitation, so that the boy's marks may be calculated at the end of the session. He often explains the knotty points in the lesson; and one reason of the excellence of the academies is, that the teachers act upon the principle of making the boys comprehend everything which they go over, by explanation or illustration, as well as drilling facts into their memories. Their education is not pursued in lightning-speed fashion, but slowly and thoroughly; and the result is that when the boys have passed through the curriculum, they are substantially fitted to pursue a university course. A little after eleven the boys have their ten minutes' recess,—just long enough to enable them to have one brief but hearty rollicking run. Back they come again, and dive into their books once more—now reciting in their own room, now going off to recite in another, now busy “cramming up” for the impending call. Some of the academies close school at two o'clock, giving the boys the rest of the afternoon for study, exercise, or amusement; others have a recess of an hour and a half at one.

The scholars reassemble at half-past two, and the

day's session closes at four or half-past. The usual hour of dining in the villages is one; supper ensues at half-past six, and the good country folk are in the habit of retiring, in their own parlance, "'long 'beout nine." The academy rules are hardly less simple. The boys have their dinner at one or two, and a boisterous scene it is. It is in vain that the under teacher tries to quell the voices and check the scuffling—his attempt is but half a success, for they have come in joyous that the day's work is done, anticipating a jolly afternoon, loudly making plans for excursions or games, and rejoiced, moreover, by the savoury smells which have been whiffed into their faces as they came by the kitchen. After school duties, they are permitted to do much as they like. If they wish to go boating, or swimming, or chestnutting, they must ask the teacher, and nearly always receive his permission; he often himself goes with them. The inclination seems to be to encourage them to take long jaunts, and to practise those sports which will thoroughly exercise their bodies.

While speaking of the boys' pastimes, let me mention that a favourite one is for a party to go off into the country in search of a *cider mill*. Very many of the New England farmers (most of whom are owners of at least a hundred acres) make their own cider; and you will not go far on one of the country roads without seeing a huge ungainly wooden mill, with enormous round wooden presses and cranks, open on either side. Should you pass in the early autumn you would find a

great cheese of apples between the presses, and the narrow gutters below discharging a full stream of the juice into the great tubs placed underneath them. Here the academy boys are apt to flock. The good-natured farmer lets them drink, or rather suck, the cider to their hearts' content, and so they have a little impromptu pull at a "cup which cheers but not inebriates."

The academy boys, as well as the university students, in America have no distinctive caps and gowns; and the numerous tall silk hats seen on the lawn at Eton are entirely wanting among the transatlantic boys. Indeed, few things look more oddly to an American who lands for the first time on English shores than to see boys of twelve or fourteen wearing the "stove pipes" which, in his own country, are never seen on heads younger than twenty-four or five. Of indoor family games the boarding students have plenty, especially if the teacher be of that cheerful temper which the best teachers usually possess. The good old games of "blindman's buff," "hunt the slipper," "Copenhagen," and others, serve to beguile many a long winter's evening, after the books have been put up, and the scholars have assembled in the parlour.

At the close of the year an exhibition takes place, attended largely by the people of the neighbourhood—the rustic lasses in gingham and muslin, proud father farmers in their best "Sunday-go-to-meeting" clothes, and fond parents from the distant city, making up the lenient audience. Declamations, compositions, dia-

logues, little dramatic scenes, singing, distribution of prizes (consisting of books and medals), constitute the exercises; and that day, so long looked forward to, and so memorable ever afterwards to the scholars, over, the graduating class departs from the tranquil scene of their preparation for the university, to that eagerly-desired haven, so enchanting to the distant schoolboy view.

CHAPTER XIII.

THE AMERICAN UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES: *Harvard and Yale—Government of the Universities—The buildings and grounds—Division into classes—The president, professors, and tutors.*

THERE is a striking contrast, in many respects, between the universities and colleges of America and those of England; and it begins with their names. The American collegiate institutions, comprising a regular undergraduate and often also professional courses, are called either “universities” or “colleges,” according to the fancy of their founders. “College” is by far the most common title; but while college in England serves to designate either a preparatory school—such as Eton, Harrow, Winchester—or one of the many parts which, together, make a university, in America college usually means an institution having a regular curriculum, granting the degrees, and pursuing equally advanced studies to those of the English university. College is in America a title which usually implies as much as university; and there are colleges which are more important than some of the universities—which combine a regular undergraduate course with professional schools, while some of the universities only pursue the first.

In their zeal to foster education, the Puritan Pilgrims, within twenty years after their landing at Plymouth Rock, founded the first American university. Several of the settlers at Newtown, two miles from Boston, were graduates of Emmanuel College, Cambridge. These were the most active movers in establishing the new university. At their instance, "Newtown" was changed to "Cambridge," in honour of the English town where was situated their Alma Mater. A grant from the General Court of Massachusetts colony started the institution; and some time afterwards a wealthy Puritan minister, Rev. John Harvard, who had come over from England, bequeathed his considerable property to the infant college, in gratitude for which it was named "Harvard College." But the Puritans, though they derived the idea of the college from the English universities, had a stubborn self-reliance which forbade them to be mere copyists. Their good sense pointed out to them that in a new land much of the old university system was needless, and that in many respects it was not suitable. To the groundwork, therefore, they added the results of their inventive spirit, and many essential changes, now apparent in nearly every American college, were introduced. Harvard College was founded in 1638, the Puritans having landed at Plymouth in 1620; and in 1698, sixty years after, the cavalier colony in Virginia also founded a college at Williamsburg, which, with a zealous loyalty, they called, after the then reigning English sovereigns, "William and

Mary" College. Yale College, the third in age, was established in 1701, at New Haven, Connecticut, by the colony who seceded from the Massachusetts Puritans, and betook themselves to the picturesque and fertile valley of the Connecticut. From these parent colleges, branches have spread fast and far, until there are now, in the United States, exclusive of professional schools, no less than two hundred and eighty-five universities and colleges. It is this fact—the excessive number of collegiate establishments—which most forcibly strikes the foreign visitor to America, who is interested in education. It is certainly in some respects an evil, for it implies a dilution of the learning in the nation, and renders the degrees—both the regular ones of Bachelor and Master of Arts, and the honorary ones of Doctor of Divinity and Doctor of Laws—too common to be of great value. The evil is, however—if the explanation I have already given of the political structure of the Republic be called to mind—a necessary one. It is inseparable from a government of united states, which leaves to each of its component members an entire control over its own local affairs; and education is a local affair. Every one of the thirty-seven states has full power to grant university or college charters within its own limits. The superiority of New England in the cause of education has been envied by the other sections of the country, which have been roused to a worthy emulation; its activity has been infectious. A large portion of the West and South-

west was settled by New Englanders or the children of New Englanders. These have imported thither the New England energy. The new states, growing up rapidly, and imbued with all the freshness and vigour of young and prosperous commonwealths, have hastened to build schools in their towns and villages. They do not like to be outdone by their older sister states; hence they have profusely granted charters for universities and colleges, dignifying institutions which really adopt standards no higher than those of high schools by these imposing titles. Endowments, legislative and private, have been liberally given; the right of conferring all collegiate degrees granted; corps of professors organised; buildings erected. Each of these infant institutions has power to fix its own standard, to arrange its course of study, and to apply its tests for conferring degrees. There is, therefore, almost as much variety in these respects as there is in the number of the institutions themselves, the degrees are given profusely, and to the ambitious scholar present few attractions.

I propose, in illustrating the American university system, to dismiss the multitude of smaller colleges with the general description above given; and to describe the two most ancient, most flourishing, and most highly considered of the New England establishments—Harvard University at Cambridge, and Yale College at New Haven. They present the best features of the American university; most of the smaller colleges have been modelled after them; they are both universities

rather than colleges, for they both combine, with a regular undergraduate course, professional and scientific schools. Their age and traditions, their high grade of scholarship, the eminent learning of their professors, and the finished scholars whom they send into the world, attest their superiority, and afford ample reasons for choosing them as types. They move, indeed—like all old institutions, good and bad—slowly; they look with perhaps too much distrust upon all change, rendering the “young American” spirit at times impatient; yet they often betray symptoms that they do feel, in a degree, the influence of the rapidly progressing age. Not a few changes have been made in them for the better in recent years; the discipline has been made more practically effective; Puritan sternness has been relaxed; less attention has been paid to abstract, more to practical, subjects; the standard of scholarship has been gradually elevated; and new life and vigour have been infused into the ancient bodies by the appointment of young and reforming professors. Both Harvard and Yale were established on a religious foundation. They were intended to be the corner-stones of the Church. A great object was to educate ministers; and they are still denominational, each being controlled by a religious sect. They were made rigid in moral and religious as well as scholastic discipline. Their system was simple, republican in its nature and its neglect of ceremony. A puritanical regulation, which still exists at Yale, forbids that any one should

be installed as its president who has not been ordained a minister of the Gospel; this betrays the spirit of the founders. For many years both Harvard and Yale were the centres and pride of Puritanism. Within a century both have undergone a marked change in religious tone. Yale has departed from the "old school," rigid Congregationalists, and now represents the "new" or liberal school of that sect. Harvard has fallen into entirely new hands: this darling of the stern old Pilgrims is now the centre of Unitarianism. But both receive students of all creeds without distinction.* There is another striking difference between Harvard and Yale. The former has departed somewhat from the republican simplicity of its early years, and is, in a degree, aristocratic and ceremonious. She has donned silk gowns on "Commencement Day;" on that anniversary, the Governor of Massachusetts and his staff, the President of the University and his colleagues—the latter in square caps and silk gowns—proceed in solemn procession from the university hall to the church where the exercises are held. Yale is as simply republican and shy of ceremony as of old, eschewing

* I cannot forbear quoting here the testimony of Mr. Dickens—certainly a not too lenient critic of American institutions—regarding the tolerance and religious impartiality of the universities. He says: "Whatever the defects of the American universities may be, they disseminate no prejudices; rear no bigots; dig up the buried ashes of no old superstitions; never interpose between the people and their improvement; exclude no man because of his religious opinions; above all, in their whole course of study and instruction, recognise a world, and a broad one too, lying beyond the college-walls."

academic costumes altogether, and making little show at any time. Harvard is rich, being so frequently the recipient of heavy endowments from wealthy New Englanders, that it has been ironically said of a deceased rich Bostonian, "He really left nothing to Harvard College!" She has noble chapels and halls, ample dormitories, spacious museums. Yale, on the contrary, is far from well-to-do; her endowments are not numerous, her students are for the most part young men of moderate means or absolutely poor. Harvard is more local in its character, receiving most of her students from the New England states; Yale collects them from every section of the land. It is the aim of Harvard to send into the world finished scholars and polished men; Yale educates exact mathematicians, and aims to fit her children for the hard realities of life. It is commonly said that Harvard is best for classics, and Yale for the exact sciences.

With these differences, Yale and Harvard, in their system and general routine, are much alike, and one description will suffice for both.

Let us note this essential difference between them and the English universities—that while the latter consist of a number of separate colleges, each with its own corps of instructors and its distinct course of study, and united, as it were, by a federative tie, the general body corporate having a general control, the American universities comprise each but one scholastic body, one corps of professors and tutors, one set of classes, one

system of text books and instruction. Harvard or Yale University is like one, and one only, of the Oxford colleges: it is a single machine, not a number working independently in a great system. The President of Yale or Harvard is president both of the undergraduate department, and of the law, medical, and divinity schools.

The governing body of the universities, chartered by the state, consists at Harvard of two houses—the Overseers and House of Convocation; at Yale, of but a single body, called the Corporation, consisting of the Governor and six senior Senators of Connecticut as *ex-officio* members, and of a certain number of clergymen and eminent graduates. The Corporation makes all laws for the general government of the university, receives and administers endowments, and controls the finances, confers the honorary degrees, builds the edifices, and elects the president, professors, tutors, and instructors. The Harvard House of Convocation nominates candidates for the presidency or professorships to the Overseers, who reject or confirm them at will. The Corporation meets annually in the university town at commencement time.

The university comprises a group of buildings standing on a spacious lawn shaded by stately elms. There are five or six dormitories, which are long, plain, red-brick three-story edifices, situated at intervals about the lawn, some old and shabby, others new, and none graced with much ornament; the other buildings—the

recitation halls and museums, the chapels and libraries, the exhibition halls and laboratories—are more fanciful and ornate, some in Saxon, some in Gothic, some in the Renaissance style. The long rows of shady elms give a pleasant air to the place; there is a tranquillity and quiet well in keeping with its character; a student, or a group of them, or here and there a citizen passing over the wide paths, are the only signs of life, except when, of a sudden, a class comes tumbling pellmell out of the recitation hall, with boisterous ado and many a youthful antic. These scatter, after a momentary romp, to their dormitories, and are anon, perhaps, followed by another class, which hastily launches itself on the benches before the professor's desk.

The undergraduates are divided into four classes, each of which occupies a scholastic year; the student, on entering, becoming a freshman, thence passing to the sophomore, the junior, and finally to the senior class. The law, medical, and divinity schools are usually divided into three classes—the junior, middle, and senior. The average age of entering freshmen is perhaps seventeen; of graduation, twenty-one. Yale has about five hundred undergraduates, Harvard about four hundred. Each undergraduate class is subdivided into three or four “divisions,” according to its numbers, one division reciting to a professor or tutor at a time, and all reciting lessons at the same hour,—thus, while the first division is reciting Greek to Professor A, the second is reciting mathematics to Tutor B, and

the third Latin to Tutor C, or *vice versa*. There are three recitations daily, of an hour each.

The teachers comprise the president—who usually unites with his executive capacity the personal teaching of, or lecturing upon, certain studies—twelve or fifteen professors, six or eight tutors, and occasional instructors in the lighter topics. The president and professors are permanent, and the greater part of them continue to occupy their positions for life; they receive their salaries—which are of course various, according to the extent of the bequests by whose provisions they are paid—from the incomes of the endowments. Perhaps the average salary of the university professor may be stated at from 400*l.* to 600*l.* The tutors, or under teachers, who mainly instruct the two lower classes, are usually young men, recent graduates, and are intrusted with a supervision over the conduct and everyday life of the students, reporting misdemeanours to the “faculty”—which comprises the president, professors, and tutors meeting together as the immediately governing body of the university—and maintaining order in the dormitories and college grounds. They are chosen by the corporation, and generally serve three years: it is contrary to the university rules that they should marry. Their salaries are from 120*l.* to 200*l.* a-year; and they reside in the dormitories, one of the best rooms being appropriated to each.

One or two tutors are assigned to each entry, where they are expected to keep the students who reside there

in order. The tutor's life, unless he chances, which is not often, to render himself popular among the "men," as collegians call themselves, is not an easy or an enviable one. The office is generally sought by those graduates who intend to adopt teaching as their profession, or who desire to rise to a professorship either in their *alma mater* or some other college. Numberless are the tricks and annoyances to which an unpopular tutor is subjected. His windows are "smashed" at night, he is hooted at by invisible students as he goes across the university green, he is lampooned in the student periodicals, locked into his room just as prayers are about to begin, and made the victim of mysterious sounds and noises in the recitation room.

The requisites of admission to the universities are an ability to pass the required examinations, and proof of "good moral character." Students of all creeds mingle together, and are permitted to attend their own churches, on the application of their parents, instead of the Sunday services in the university chapel; the only condition being that they shall hand in, on Monday morning, a written declaration to the effect that "they attended church on Sunday, both morning and afternoon, arriving before the commencement of service, and not leaving until its close."

CHAPTER XIV.

THE UNIVERSITIES CONTINUED : *Examinations for admission—System of recitations—The daily life of the student—Terms and vacations—Term examinations—The studies pursued—Lectures—Expenses.*

THE examinations for admission take place at the close and at the beginning of the scholastic year, which lasts from the early part of September till July; and they may well be a bugbear to the candidates, for they are long and severe. The catalogue of the university announces in what text books and topics the applicants are to be examined. They are as follows: English grammar, reading, geography, arithmetic, algebra to quadratic equations, the first part of Playfair's Euclid, Latin grammar and prose composition, Latin Reader, Sallust (or Cæsar), Virgil's *Æneid*, *Bucolics*, and *Georgics*; the Greek Reader, Greek grammar, and the first six books of Homer's *Iliad*. At Yale, the examinations take place in a large hall, all the candidates being examined at the same time, and in the same room; and the examination continues for two days. The candidates assemble at the hall at nine o'clock in the morning, and are each provided with a table and chair, pens, ink, and paper, the examination being

conducted in writing. When the would-be freshmen are seated—the professors and tutors occupying raised seats at intervals along the walls to watch that there may be no foul play—printed papers are handed to them, containing questions on the studies required. A certain time is given them to finish their written answers to these questions, at the expiration of which both questions and answers are gathered by the tutors, and a new series of questions supplied. The questions are minute, and are a very perfect test of the candidate's proficiency. The examination on the Latin and Greek authors comprises not only translations, but construction, scanning, derivation, ancient geography and history, and etymology. For two long days the candidates have to work hard at their little desks; on the third day they are informed of the result. Usually about two-thirds of the applicants are admitted, one-third rejected; and of the admitted two-thirds, a certain number are allowed to enter "on condition"—that is, their examination has been on most points satisfactory, but is deficient in one or two studies—and the "condition" of their entering is, that they shall "make up," or pass another examination on the deficient studies, at the end of the first term. At Harvard, the examination is partly written and partly oral.

Those who prefer to remain out of the university for the first year or two can do so. In this case they may enter one of the advanced classes on passing the examination undergone by the candidates for

the freshman class, and, in addition, on all the studies which have been pursued in the university by the class which the candidates propose to enter. There is a regulation at Yale, and I think at Harvard, requiring that no one shall be admitted to the freshman class who is under fourteen years old, nor to any advanced class without a proportionate increase of age. When a student enters the university he is required to deposit a bond, executed by a parent or near relative, to pay all charges for which he may become liable to the institution during his college course.

The undergraduate, having passed the ordeal of examination with success, is at once placed in one of the divisions into which his class is arranged, finding his place in the first, second, or third, according to the initial letter of his surname. At Yale, however, the system of dividing the classes has recently been changed: they are now divided, not according to the alphabet, but according to scholarly merit.

A marked difference between the English and the American university exists in the method of instruction. In the former, the teaching is, I think, wholly by lectures, and examinations at rare intervals; in the latter, during the first two years at least, it is almost entirely confined to daily recitations and examinations. The classes do not begin to attend lectures until late in the second or at the beginning of the third year. At first the lectures are few—once or twice a-week—then the class attends one lecture and two recitations a

day. During "senior" (the last) year the lectures take up the greater part of the time, and there are but few recitations; but notes have to be taken of the lectures, and an examination passed upon them at the end of the term and of the year.

The student, finally settled down in his cosy little college room, rises usually at about half-past seven in winter, and seven in summer. Morning services in chapel being now abolished, his first step is to go to breakfast. He either boards in company with half a dozen of his classmates, at the house of some "poor but respectable" family or widow; or else joins an eating club managed by some poorer student, who finds a fitting place, sees to the marketing, hires and looks after the cook and table boy, and keeps the club accounts, receiving his board free for these services. These clubs are got up with two very different objects—for economy's sake or for luxury's sake. Students who cannot afford a good boarding house, get their meals by clubbing together at a little above cost price, and, by living plainly, manage to live economically. Students, on the other hand, who wish to "live high," and can afford it, do not find any boarding house good enough for them, and so organise a club, that they may have all the luxuries when and how they please. The system of having meals in "commons," in the university itself, was long practised at both Harvard and Yale, but was years ago given up; so that now all the students board or club in the town. His breakfast over, the student

takes a walk, or repairs to his college room "to get up" the first lesson of the day. At nine he is called to recitation, and with the rest of his division proceeds to one of the recitation halls—a plain room, with wooden benches raised one above another, and a little round box of a desk for the tutor or professor.

The division consists of about thirty students: of these, perhaps half are called on to recite during the hour's sitting. The tutor is supplied with a little box, containing cards with the names of the division, which he draws out by lot. He also has a book, in which he marks, in hieroglyphics known only to himself, the absences and the quality of each recitation. If the recitation be in classics, he draws the name of a student, who rises, book in hand, in his place. He is called on first to read or scan the text, then to translate some six or eight lines, which done, the tutor proceeds to ask certain questions. Where was such and such a town or river, mentioned in the text? Who was such and such a deity or personage? What the period at which he lived? Tell all you can about him. What is the derivation of the word —? What does Homer refer to in saying —? On such points he is expected fully to prepare himself. At ten the student is free again, and studies or does what he likes till twelve, when he goes into the second recitation. From that he proceeds to dinner, and has the afternoon to himself till four, when, for the last time in the day, he appears before the tutor or professor.

Immediately after the last recitation the chapel bell rings, and all the undergraduates assemble in the edifice devoted to college worship. The freshmen occupy one side of the house, the sophomores the opposite side, while the two upper classes sit respectively in the upper and the lower part of the middle pews. As soon as the bell stops, and the students are in their places, the "monitors" (poorer students who receive certain privileges for acting as such) rise in their seats with little books, scan carefully the section of students over which they are placed, and mark the absentees. Meanwhile the president of the university has begun to read a Bible chapter from his high pulpit, the faculty sitting on either side, in pews upon a raised platform. Prayers occupy fifteen or twenty minutes, after which the students separate for supper. Their evenings are devoted to a great variety of occupations, of study or amusement—singing on the lawn, boating in summer, attending the numerous literary and secret societies, and other employments, according to taste and character.

Harvard has two terms a-year; the first beginning in September, and ending the middle of January—then a vacation of six weeks; the second lasting from March till July, when there is a second and equally long recess. The Yale year is divided into three terms, from September to Christmas, then a fortnight's vacation; from January to April, then a three weeks' vacation; and from the last of April till July, when a summer recess of seven weeks ensues. Besides the daily recita-

tions, examinations are held at the end of every term of three months on all the studies pursued during the term, and also annually on the year's text books.

These examinations are like those for admission, thorough and severe, and the same system of "conditioning" the undergraduates who are not proficient in them is used on each occasion; and if the result of the examination is quite unsatisfactory, the student is not seldom constrained to leave his class and descend to the class below, or leave the university altogether. The quarterly and annual examinations, as well as the daily ones, are marked, according to their proficiency, by the professors and tutors. A certain number is adopted (at Yale it is four), which stands for a perfect recitation; two is then the average; the student who for any length of time falls below the latter number is liable to lose his place in the class. The scholastic honours—the student's rank among his mates, and his position at the end of the academic course—are determined by the aggregate of all the marks he has thus received through the four years, the one who obtains the largest aggregate receiving the highest "appointment" or honour given by the faculty. At Harvard, marks for attendance and good conduct are added to those given for recitations in deciding the student's rank; at Yale, the two are kept separate, there being a system of marks for scholarship, and another for delinquencies of absence and misconduct.

The studies pursued at the larger American univer-

sities do not materially vary. The following are those in vogue at Yale, as announced by its annual catalogue. In Freshman year, the Greek studies are—Homer's *Iliad* and *Odyssey*, Herodotus, Lucian, and Greek prose composition; the Latin studies are—Livy, Quintilian, the Odes of Horace, and Latin prose composition; the mathematical—algebra, Euclid, and spherics; the History of Rome and rhetoric are also pursued.

In Sophomore year, the *Electra* of Sophocles, Demosthenes' Orations, Prometheus, Theocritus, and Xenophon; Horace's Satires and Epistles, Cicero de Officiis, and Juvenal; trigonometry, analytical geometry, and conic sections; elocution, composition, and rhetoric are pursued.

In Junior year, Thucydides, Demosthenes de Corona, Tacitus, mechanics, disputations, modern languages, logic, chemistry, natural philosophy, and higher mathematics, are studied.

Finally, in Senior year, metaphysics, moral philosophy, political economy, geology, astronomy, chemistry, Stewart's Active and Moral Powers, Butler's Analogy, moral science, natural theology, philosophical history, and international law, are taught.

In the Junior year, the undergraduate begins to attend lectures; at first there are one lecture and two recitations a-day, then the lectures become more frequent and the recitations fewer. Notes of the lectures must be taken, and examinations take place on their

subjects at the end of the quarter and the year. The lectures are mostly confined to the higher English topics, and are delivered by the senior professors. History, metaphysics, mental science, anatomy and physiology, literature and chemistry comprise the main subjects. Often the lecturer is a prominent professor, noted in his department; then his essays attract the general public as well as the students. Professors Woolsey, Silliman, Porter, and Dana, at Yale—all men of noted ability—deliver lectures which are often published, and are valuable for their literary as well as for their scientific value. At Harvard, Professor Agassiz's lectures on geology and physiology create a profound interest; but at this university, perhaps Professor James Russell Lowell—as well known in England as in America for his “Biglow Papers” and charming lyrics—who occupies the chair of *Belles Lettres*, as the successor of Longfellow, is the most attractive. During the winter, he is in the habit of delivering a series of lectures to the senior class on modern literature, full of forcible and elegant English, refined humour, and polite learning, which draw audiences of ladies and gentlemen, who find it a rare treat to hear them.

The practice of declamation, composition, and forensic disputation begins, in the universities, in Sophomore year, and continues once or twice a-week till graduation. Much attention is given to these exercises, and the students, who have many of them had a

previous drilling in public speaking at the academies or high schools, become self-confident on the stage, and correct writers of English.

A brief glance at the necessary expenses in pursuing a collegiate education in America may be interesting. The incidental cost, of course, depends upon the habits or pecuniary ability of the student. The charges at Yale may be taken as a medium, the expenses at Harvard being somewhat greater, and those at the smaller colleges in the rural towns somewhat less. The university bills are sent in to the students by the treasurer every quarter. At Yale, the annual charge for tuition is 12*l.*; for rent and care of a room in the dormitories, 8*l.*, if there are two students in a room, each pays 4*l.*; for expenses of public rooms, "ordinary repairs and incidentals," 2*l.*; for use of gymnasium, 16*s.*; tax of the literary societies, 1*l.* 4*s.* The regular university charges amount thus to between 20*l.* and 24*l.* On graduation, the student pays a fee for his diploma of bachelor of arts and the "commencement" expenses, of 2*l.* 10*s.*; and whatever students elect to study French or German in Junior year pay an extra tax of 1*l.* 4*s.* Those students who enter an advanced class—any beyond the freshman—pay 1*l.* extra for each session the class has completed beyond the first freshman term. Thus the whole of the university expenses range from 26*l.* to 30*l.* a-year. The expenses of living vary widely. The average price of good board, however, may be stated at 1*l.* 10*s.* per week; the student's

eating clubs cost less, perhaps for each student 1*l.* per week. Fuel and lights may be estimated at 5*l.* a-year; books and stationery, 4*l.*; use of furniture (for those lodging in the dormitories), 4*l.* A total of annual necessary expenses, to those residing in the university buildings, will not therefore vary far from 70*l.* A majority of the students, during the first two years, live in private boarding houses, having their meals where they lodge, generally taking up their residence in the dormitories in the Junior year. There is not room in the dormitories for all the students; and as the best rooms are given to the upper classes, those in the lower have to put up with inferior accommodations, and, unless poor, prefer to live outside. Many of the wealthier students live outside the university—which they are permitted to do—throughout the course.

CHAPTER XV.

THE UNIVERSITIES CONTINUED : *Punishments—Honours and scholarships—The literary societies—Physical exercise—The college magazines—Libraries—Honorary degrees.*

THE undergraduate has a great deal of liberty of action. He is treated rather as a man than as a boy ; he is made, to a large degree, the judge of his own conduct. Having received notice of the penalties inflicted for this or that course, he is left to himself, knowing what the consequences of his actions will be, and appreciating that he has the free choice of breaking or conforming to the rules. Regularity of attendance on his college duties, and orderly habits, are enjoined upon him : if he does not perform them, certain punishments are inflicted. At Yale, every unexplained absence from recitation or chapel, or misdemeanour, is noted by a delinquency "mark." If these marks reach a certain figure—I believe it is fifteen or sixteen—the penalty of a "letter home" is used. This is simply a letter, written by one of the tutors to the student's parent or guardian, informing him that the young man is put "upon the first course of discipline." It is a great bugbear to the verdant freshman, who sees in it parental wrath mingled with college disgrace. The maturer

student, however, is apt to make it a matter of ridicule; he secures the tutorial epistle, has it neatly framed, and hangs it among his pipes and boxing gloves over his college mantel, for the diversion of his cronies. A larger number of marks produces more of these letters; but, a certain limit reached, the punishment does not rest there: the student is "warned." If this does no good, the penalty of "suspension" ensues. Suspension is the sending a student away from the university for a certain period, varying, according to the nature of his offence, from a fortnight to two or three months. The faculty indicates the place where he is to remain during his suspension; not seldom some village at a distance both from the university town and the student's home is chosen, where he is placed under the care of a rustic parson, living in his family and under his surveillance. Here, in the solitude of rural scenes, the suspended—or, as he is expressively called in student parlance, "rusticated"—undergraduate will, if he is wise, study diligently to keep apace with his class; for when he returns to the university he will be examined severely in all the books they have gone over; and if he fails, he is again suspended, or perhaps even expelled. If a student at Yale receives forty-eight demerit marks, he is lost beyond recall, and expulsion is his stern and inevitable fate. .

College "men" are the same the wide world over; their temptations and passions are little changed by difference of climate or country. Every one who knows

about student life may guess the variety of offences which Yale and Harvard boys commit. Some are "rusticated" for breaking tutor's windows; some for reviving the Inquisition for the terror of timid freshmen; some for practical jokes on college dignities; some for town and gown battles, which take place as well at Yale as at Oxford; some for "rushing" at chapel; some for the persistent length of their morning naps, or the rash tumults of their midnight revels. Expulsion is an extreme penalty; student prudence is fain to avoid this Charybdis; only the inveterately festive or slothful are apt to incur it: but a student rebellion—which does sometimes occur—affords a plentiful harvest to the university guillotine.

A more genial topic is that of the honours and rewards which await the diligent student and the governable youth. They are not, it is true, so numerous or so substantial as those which venerable mother Oxford showers upon her well-doing children, nor do they have so significant an effect upon the after life and prosperity of the graduate. There are no fellowships, whereby one may bridge over the uncertain period which lies between graduation and a settled life occupation. There are no scholarships or foundations at the preparatory academies, as at Eton or Winchester, whereby the incoming freshman receives an aid toward his support at the university. There are two kinds of honours—university and literary society honours. The university rewards are again divided into two kinds. The first

consists of the student's rank in his class, bringing no pecuniary benefit, but making public his comparative position, and, if the aggregate of his marks is high enough, giving him the envied privilege to "orate" on commencement day. Commencement is the Commemoration of the American university. The student who stands highest in his class at the end of the course is named "valedictorian;" he closes the commencement exercises by a farewell address; it is the highest regular scholastic honour. The second honour is that of "salutatorian;" he opens the exercises by a salutatory address in Latin. Then come several honorary grades, each comprising those students who have reached a certain aggregate of marks, and called respectively, "philosophical orations," "high orations," "orations," "dissertations," and "disputes." About two-thirds of a class thus receive a distinct rank; about half receive a rank high enough to secure the privilege of speaking at commencement.

The other class of university honours is that of scholarships and prizes, which are, as their names imply, pecuniary in their character. The scholarships are founded upon endowments made by munificent and public-spirited patrons. Special examinations, which are quite voluntary, and which all members of the class to which the scholarship is offered who choose may enter, are held for some of the scholarships; for others, only those may enter who have won a previous scholarship or prize. The scholarships vary materially

in value, those of Harvard being the most liberal, the incomes of some of which enable a student of moderate habits to support himself throughout the course. The prizes are for composition, declamation, and mathematical or astronomical problems, and vary from 1*l.* to 20*l.* each. The highest prize at Yale is called the "Deforest Prize Medal;" this is connected with another prize called the "Townsend Premiums." During the last session of the senior year three subjects for essays are given out to the class, every member of which may, if he likes, compete: the six best compositions on the subjects receive the six Townsend Premiums of 2*l.* each. The six "Townsend" men then, on a certain day, deliver the successful essays as orations in the college chapel, in the presence of the undergraduates and the faculty. The Townsend essay best written and spoken secures the "Deforest Prize," which is 20*l.* Although the sum is not large, this highest of the forensic honours is eagerly sought by the ambitious for a university fame. Students are ardent hero-worshippers; and the prizemen, if they add to their talents pleasing personal qualities, take the lead in their classes in all matters without dispute.

Notwithstanding the really severe scholastic discipline to which the student is subjected, he finds much time for reading, recreation, and literary exercises. At Yale there are two rival literary societies, between which the whole body of undergraduates is divided. Each society, on the advent of a new class, strives to get

the greatest number of freshmen to join its ranks ; and a regular campaign ensues, often exciting and always amusing in its incidents. The officers of the rival societies will go to the towns where the preparatory academies are situated, and will canvass thoroughly all those who are about to come up to the university ; committees of enthusiastic society men infest the railway stations, to have the first word with the verdant youths about to enter college, who are much amazed, and not seldom frightened, to find themselves the objects of bitter and long-continued scuffling on entering the university town. Every device is employed to persuade them, and if necessary to smuggle them, into the society halls, where, before they know it, they find themselves taking the oath, and anon enrolled members of the fraternity. The society halls are very richly fitted up with frescoed walls and velvet-lined benches, and an ornate president's desk. Meetings are held one evening in each week ; a question, before decided upon, is debated by any member who wishes to participate in the exercise ; an occasional composition is read ; and several times in the year humorous entertainments take place, a stage being fitted up, and an elaborate programme produced. These societies have their field nights, when the halls are crowded, and the " great men " of the university hold forth to the intense admiration of all the lower classmen ; but more often they are thinly attended, amid the hundred other amusements which university students have to distract them.

Besides the university prizes, these literary societies—"Linonia" and the "Brothers in Unity"—set apart a fund for prize debates, participated in by their own members of the freshmen, sophomore, and senior classes. The umpires are chosen from among the graduate members of the society, often professors in the university, who award the prizes to the three best speakers. A certain question is chosen by the society, and each disputant argues in the affirmative or negative of the question elected, having a month in which to prepare his argument. The rewards received by the successful competitors are fame, and small sums varying from 1*l.* to 5*l.*

The universities display a commendable regard for the physical well-being of the students. Spacious gymnasiums are provided with every appliance for vigorous exercise—bowling alleys, swings, bars, dumb bells, and all the sturdy paraphernalia which swell the muscle and give vigour to the limbs; and are made yet more useful by the lessons of professors of the "manly arts." A trifling charge, as has been said, is made for the use of the gymnasiums; they are open all day, and the students may go and come when they please. Those robust out-of-door games, which are sung by Eton-brod poets, and which display brilliant results on the day when Oxford and Cambridge meet for the annual tug of aquatic war on the waters of the Thames, are perhaps scarcely less passionately loved by the Yankee gownsmen than by their British cousins. Cricket

and base-ball, foot-ball and quoits, boating, swimming, and skating—the latter a winter-long luxury in New England, but seldom experienced in the mild old England climate—are kept up with infinite zest beyond the Atlantic. Harvard and Yale have their annual boat-race, as well as Oxford and Cambridge; the rival champions undergo the same long previous drill and discipline, the same culinary discomforts, the same self-denial of cigar and punch; and they row their race before interested thousands, who cover the shores of the pretty lake Quinsigamond, where the great contest takes place. There was, not so very long ago, another exercise which rose suddenly into college popularity in the northern states. Early in 1861, when the civil war was just becoming formidable, and the news from Fort Sumter and Baltimore had sent through the popular heart an indignant thrill, some one proposed that the students should prepare for a now probable emergency. So forthwith was witnessed in the universities the formation of battalions, companies, “awkward squads;” certain hours in the afternoon were devoted to drilling, guns were loaned by neighbouring armouries, officers were elected, and sometimes tutors and professors became lieutenants, captains, and colonels. Passing across the university lawn at almost any hour after noon, you would not have failed to see little platoons deploying hither and thither, wheeling to the right-about, forming double file, trotting on the “double quick,” the abrupt word of command echoing among

the ancient dormitories, and sounding oddly in that usually silent and studious place. It was not mere boys' pastime, it was something serious and provident. Many of those who first learned the ABC of the manual, going out from their lexicons to practise it, in the latter weeks of their cloistral university life, within two years afterward were being nominated to the national Senate as major and brigadier-generals, and were doing famous work in the unscholastic scenes of the southern marshes and valleys. The libraries of the American universities and colleges are not large when compared with the wonders of wit and wisdom which one gazes on amazed in the vast alcoves of the Bodleian and the Radcliffe. Those of Harvard, including the professional libraries, contain about 120,000 volumes; those of Yale, 80,000 volumes; those of Dartmouth College, 38,000; those of Virginia University, 35,000.

The students of many of the universities publish a monthly magazine, devoted to students' essays, poetry, and the current college events. The magazine is conducted by editors chosen from among their own number by the junior class, and hold their places for a year. It is supported by subscriptions from the students and the alumni, and presents a very fair specimen of the literary ability of the students. Now and then, too, a paper is published anonymously, having humorous cuts illustrative of events in the university, and containing satirical articles, mainly directed against obnoxious professors. There are also published

plenty of books of college and society songs, and the Yale students in particular are fond of singing together on the lawn after their day of recitation and study is over.

The custom of awarding honorary degrees has reached in America an injurious extent. The universities and colleges are much too generous in distributing these bounties, which have therefore greatly deteriorated in value. The degree of Doctor of Laws is, perhaps, that most abused; it is conferred quite as often upon successful politicians, famous but unlettered generals, expert navigators, and hardy admirals, as upon the profound interpreters of Aristotle and the learned commentators on the Justinian Code. General Jackson, a stout fighter and an energetic President, but whose erudition was dubious, was dubbed LL.D. by Harvard; and the same university added those magic initials to the name of Abraham Lincoln, who had many shining qualities, but not those ripened by the classics, and whose name was much nobler without them. Thus have the honorary degrees depreciated, like an inflated currency; and whereas they should be the Garters of learning, are only now a glut of Legion of Honour ribbons.*

* See Note A, Appendix.

CHAPTER XVI.

UNIVERSITY CUSTOMS AND PASTIMES.

THE time-honoured customs of universities—the various and original pranks of college students—are always interesting. The authors of *Tom Brown* and *Verdant Green* have rendered familiar to every English and every American household the pastimes and amusements of venerable Oxford.

Although the American universities are much younger than their British sisters, they are quite old enough to have acquired many traditional customs, hallowed by the lapse of time, and handed down as precious heirlooms in the student world. The age at which youths enter the universities is an age when the romantic, the ludicrous, and the love of fun are especially vivid.

I will narrate a few college customs, some of which, indeed, no longer survive, but most of which still exist at Yale. They will serve to illustrate American college life as it really is, beneath the formalities of the curriculum, and outside the recitation room.

At Yale, as in Oxford, the freshman is to the rest of the undergraduates the fittest and choicest of game.

He was born, and fate manifestly sent him to college, to be victimised. The "town" may be a fair target for an open, toe-to-toe fight; the "town" is worthy of a marshalled array of "gown," of a pitched battle with the favoured sons of the gentry; the freshman has not even this respect paid him, but is waylaid in the dark, is victimised amidst a hundred mysteries, receives no notice of the attack, and is disarmed and helpless—even had he the courage to resist—before the attack begins.

When our freshman leaves his native village for college, he is a somewhat puny, very innocent youth in short jackets. He has, perhaps, prepared himself for the much-dreaded examination under the tender care of the village parson, who has taught him, in a fatherly, fostering way, in the seclusion of the parsonage study. With what patience does mamma work away on his wardrobe—completing with her own motherly hand his stock of under-shirts and stockings, his innumerable scarves and jackets, not forgetting the while to stow away in snug corners of his box sundry jars of home-made jams and pies! How sister Grace, too, declines to attend the choir rehearsals, not having time to devote to the ordinary duties of society, for fear that the beaded watch-fob, the embroidered slippers, the ornate pincushions, and the fancy cravats with which Bobbie must be supplied, will not be finished in time! Paterfamilias bustles about the farm, proud and happy; he is going to escort Bobbie to the uni-

versity town, and "see him through all right." Bobbie himself—now the hero, soon, alas, to become the martyr—is in a strange confusion of bliss and sorrow; joy, that he is at last really to be a collegian; and regret, not seldom tearful, at leaving these kind, tender hearts that are so fond of him. At last the day comes, and all is ready promptly in time.

The coach having brought them safely to the railway station, Bobbie and father ensconce themselves in one of the long carriages, and anticipate a quiet and rapid journey to the university town. But mark well a dashing-looking young gentleman, who enters the carriage at one of the little stations about midway to their destination. He is dressed at the top of the fashion—wears bulging trousers with perpendicular pockets, a short bobby coat, a little flat hat slightly askew on his head, and a cane. We, who have seen something of the university, know him to be—though Bobbie and papa are far from guessing it—a student of students. As he stands in the doorway of the railway carriage, he glances keenly down it, sharply scanning the passengers on either side; his eye lights and rests long on Bobbie and papa. He seems satisfied with them, for he no longer takes the trouble to look at anybody else. Presently, with the jauntiest air in the world, he glides up the carriage, and, with the politest of student-like bows, seats himself directly opposite our rustic pair. With an overpowering politeness, he opens a conversation with Bobbie's papa;

descants on the pretty autumn landscape ; talks of the prospects of the harvest and the comparative value of the farms on the road ; ingratiates himself firmly with Bobbie's papa by his politeness and deference to papa's opinions, papa declaring to himself what a capital young fellow this is ! By and by our young gentleman leads, by gradual steps, to the subject of going to college. He presumes that Bobbie is on his way to the university, —perhaps he is going to stand the freshman examination ? “ Yes, sir, he is.” (What a clever fellow to guess that ! thinks Pater.) “ Delighted to hear it, sir. I am from the university—perhaps I can be of some use to your son—will be *very* happy to do anything I can for him.” The conversation becomes familiar, our jaunty student exerting himself to his utmost to be agreeable, as they approach the university town. Shortly before arriving, he proposes that father and son should permit him to call a cab, and that they should all three ride up to the hotel—near the university buildings—together. He will be happy to take supper with them, and after that, perhaps they would like to visit one of the literary societies ? “ Very glad indeed,” answers Bobbie's father. But the project so prettily arranged in the railway carriage is not destined to be carried out.

At last the train stops, the guard shouts out “ New Haven !” and there is a great hubbub of passengers getting in and out. It is dark, and even were it not, they would not know it, for the New Haven station

is underground, and one of the dampest and blackest of possible holes. It is astonishing—there is a great crowd on the platform, and a very unusual noise of screaming and scuffling. But Bobbie and papa have hardly time to ascertain the cause of this unwonted hubbub; their new friend seems to have become infected by it, for he grows very excited, and urges them to keep close to him, and hurry to the cabs as fast as they can through the crowd. They have scarcely found themselves on the platform, however, when two parties of students—for the makers of all this noise are students—rush frantically towards them. “Here’s Bugby with a freshman!” is the cry from one side, and “Bugby, stick to ’em tight!” reëchoes from the other. Bobbie and papa, wholly mystified, are frightened out of their wits when they become the centres of a hot scuffle. Bobbie finds himself of a sudden seized by the arm, and tugged stoutly one way, then seized by the collar and tugged with equal pertinacity the other way. Fists fly about his head, aimed, not at it, but on both sides of it, with alarming rapidity; he is pulled this way and that, and falls about, almost out of his wits with fright. Meanwhile papa has been fairly jostled off to the other end of the platform, and is making a hopeless yet desperate attempt to push his way back to his dearly-beloved son. In vain—for before he succeeds in getting half way to him, he sees a remarkable thing. A great burly student, full six feet high, is mounting the staircase of the station,

surrounded by a choice bodyguard of fellow-students, who are acting as coverers of his retreat, by keeping off the skirmishers of the hostile party who are hanging about their rear; and the big fellow's arms are wound tightly around poor Bobbie, who is shivering with fright, but finds resistance wholly unavailing, as he is carried along. Fond papa's feelings, on seeing this heartrending sight, may be better imagined than described. The next thing that Bobbie knows, he is thrust by his titanic bearer into the darkest corner of a cab, and, accompanied by three students, is driven rapidly through the dark strange streets. His companions give him sundry instructions, and assure him that if he will only keep quiet, and do what they tell him, not a hair of his head shall be harmed. This is very consolatory, and he becomes as obedient as a slave. The cab stops; one of the students whips out a long handkerchief, with which he proceeds to hoodwink Bobbie's eyes. He is taken out of the cab, and hurried up a long flight of stairs. At the top, his gaolers take off the bandage, knock at a door, and lead him into a large and brilliantly-lighted hall. Bobbie is dazzled with the flare, and abashed by the multitude of faces which are all staring at him, from the semicircular benches which are ranged about the room. He has, however, little time for reflection: his conductors pull him to a seat; then one of them whispers to him, "What's your name?" Bobbie answers mechanically, "Robert Barnley, sir." "All right," whispers the other. "When

I pull your sleeve, stand up; and when that fellow in the chair asks you a question, just say, 'I do.'"

It is all over before Bobbie can understand what they are about. One of the students who had captured him stands up, and "begs to propose Mr. Robert Barnley, of the freshman class, as a member of this society." The question being put and agreed to amid great uproar, Bobbie feels a twitch at his elbow and a push from behind, and tremblingly "gets upon his feet." He is asked something about promising to obey the laws of this society, and mechanically answering, in a faint voice, "I do," is pronounced a member of the "Brothers in Unity." He is then very coolly told that he is free to go and meet his papa at the hotel. Of course Barnley senior has learned all about the matter by this time, and is complacently awaiting his hopeful in the reading-room.

The reader need hardly be told that Bobbie has been thus summarily made a member of one of the literary societies already described.

Before he has been in the university many weeks—just as he is getting settled down, and acquainted with his classmates, and the home sickness is wearing off somewhat—he becomes a martyr to a certain custom called "Freshman Initiation." At Yale there flourish in each of the classes several *secret societies*, invested with a great deal of mystery, to gain entrance to which is, of course, an object of ambition with all new-comers. The freshmen enter the "freshman" secret societies;

when they become "Sophs," they leave the freshman societies and join the "Sophomore" societies; and so on through the course. These secret societies hire rooms in an unfrequented part of the town, and there hold weekly meetings; some of them are jovial, others literary, in their objects. Each society has for its badge a little gold breast-pin bearing mysterious symbols. To the young student's mind these secret societies have a great attraction. They are much more select than the large literary societies before described; each candidate must receive a nearly unanimous vote before being admitted; and each society tries to obtain the greatest number of good fellows, scholars, writers, and speakers. When a new freshman class enters the university, the outgoing members of the freshman secret societies set to work to "pledge" the new comers; and in a short time perhaps two-thirds of the freshmen promise to join one or other of the mysterious fraternities. When the society lists are completed, preparations are made for the great orgie called "Freshman Initiation." All the freshman societies combine for the purpose of initiating their new members in common, and in public; of course this initiation does not involve the divulging any of the supposed terrible secrets of any of the fraternities.

Freshman Initiation takes place in the basement of the Connecticut State House, which stands on a spacious green fronting the university edifices. The students hire the entire basement-floor for the object

of freshman initiation. On the day preceding, the freshmen are notified that at ten o'clock that evening they will be conducted to the ordeal. The tremors of the victims during the day may be imagined; awful stories have already reached their ears of the doings of the night; and as the time approaches their fears increase, and the suspense of uncertainty adds to the discomfort of their situation. Promptly at ten, as our freshman sits quaking, three ominous raps sound upon his door; and two mysterious forms, cloaked and black-masked, enter his room. They proceed to hoodwink him, first commanding him to *carry his purse with him*. Before proceeding to the grand rendezvous, he has to pass through various trials, according to the inventive powers of his conductors. Some will lead him up to the door of a private mansion, ring the bell, and leaving him there, dodge around the corner, and watch the scene. When Biddy answers the bell, she finds herself face to face with this hoodwinked figure, and the ensuing colloquy may be imagined. Others will make their victim walk a ladder blindfold, or march unconsciously off a hillock. After "trying" him thus, the masked inquisitors usually stop at one of the public restaurants, and they are especially apt to find their way hither if their "fresh" is known to have plenty of money. The scene at the restaurant on initiation night is a most lively and curious one. Parties are constantly leading in pale and forlorn hoodwinked freshmen, and, removing their bandages, compel them

to "stand treat." A scene of festive gaiety follows, the mulcted freshman sitting submissively by, staring at his masked companions, and deriving some consolation from the sight of his classmates here and there undergoing a similar tax. He is glad enough to buy a moment's peace and eyesight on any terms; so he makes no objection even to the proposal for a supper of champagne and partridges. The restaurant revel over, "fresh" is once more bandaged, and now the inquisitors, hilarious with wine, hasten with him to the principal ceremony of the night. Two titanic collegians, their features concealed by grotesque masks, their figures covered by a gaudy dress, oppose the entrance of the unentitled by naked swords crossed before the door of the State House. It is a large, dimly-lighted, dampish subterranean hall, where there is a very pandemonium of shouting and yelling, loud laughter, and frantic rushing hither and thither. There are numerous apartments right and left, prepared in a variety of ways for the business of the night. The whole space is swarming with hundreds of disguised and fantastically-dressed students. The disguises are of great variety; some amusing, others designed to inspire terror in the already-frightened freshman, others wholly unique—the student's mind being very inventive in this direction. In one of the longer rooms the "initiation" has already begun. A party of masked students have got behind a poor hoodwinked "fresh," and are rushing him backward and forward with tre-

mendous speed. In another corner of the room some of the maskers have a huge blanket, and, holding it horizontally by its ends and sides, are tossing two blindfolded freshmen, so that with every lurch they touch the wall. But these tortures seem but trifling when we turn to some of the other rooms.

Here, in a low, dark, passage way, several maskers, dressed in the deepest and deadest black, are grouped around an upright skeleton, whose sockets glisten with a dull phosphorescent light. A freshman is brought up face to face with this ghastly figure, and his bandage removed. A student ventriloquist, stationed behind the skeleton, addresses the victim as if through the skeleton's mouth. The figure seems to command him, in a hollow and cavernous voice, to shake it by the hand. The freshman, after some resistance, obeys. Instantly a quiver shoots over his frame, and he becomes as ghastly pale as the skeleton itself. Master freshman will learn the secret of all this hereafter in the recitation hall—he has to thank *electricity* for this ill turn. Next he is brought to a room where stands a masked figure dressed as a headsman. Beside him is seen a guillotine, and the victim—again permitted to see for what he is destined—is laid upon the floor, and his head inserted beneath the fatal and glittering axe. As he stoops for this purpose he turns white to see, lying beside the guillotine, a blood-stained cloth. The executioner sets the deadly machine in motion, and it descends with a whiz upon the neck of the freshman—

stopping short, however, within an inch or two of it. We, as spectators, know that the axe is of harmless pine, painted a shining steel colour; and we have time to perceive that there are firm stops above where his head is placed. He is next led to a cold, damp, cellar-like apartment, with only the damp ground for footing, where he is enveloped in a particularly damp and uncomfortable shroud. There is a long narrow hole in the ground, in the middle of the room; beside it, a coffin. The neophyte receives a solemn lecture from a grim-looking fellow, who stands with folded arms above the grave, and then is compelled to step into the coffin and lie flat on his back. The ropes which pass under it are grasped, the coffin is swung, and then with a slow swaying motion it descends into the grave. All of a sudden there is total darkness, a board is placed over the top of the hole, and our poor freshman, for the first and last time in his life, experiences what it is to be buried alive. If he has in his childhood been the victim of nurse's ghost stories, his situation is really terrible. It lasts, however, but a moment; he is drawn up again, and passes on to other trials of his courage. The next thing is to take him into a room brightly illuminated by torches, where a kind of high court has been organised. On a raised platform, disguised, sits the judge who is to "put him to the question."

All sorts of ridiculous queries are put to him, some of which he would rather not answer, but is awed into submission. Then a cloth is raised just below the

judge's chair, a coffin is discovered, and in it a corpse, with a gash across its forehead—a corpse, however, of *wax* only. The forehead of this ghastly object the freshman is forced to kiss; and that ends his initiation.

“Smoking out” used to be one of the commonest punishments to which freshmen who “put on airs” were subjected. A party of students proceed to the “swelly” freshman’s room late at night, and rouse him out of bed, shut down all his windows, proceed to light pipes all round. They smoke and smoke and smoke, until the room is filled with smoke, and they do not usually reckon without their host in thinking that they will make their victim thoroughly ill. Sometimes, however, the “smokers out” catch a Tartar. On one of these occasions the tables were completely turned on the would-be persecutors. As soon as they had got to smoking, their involuntary host took a pipe and began smoking too. They smoked fast and heavy; he puffed away, and easily kept pace with them. The result was, that after an hour or two of cloud-compelling, in which the attacked party stood his ground heroically, three of the besieging party themselves capitulated, and were forced to hasten abruptly from the room to avoid a most ignominious exposure. It is a common trick to rouse the freshman from his slumbers, make him get upon a table, and dance and sing for the amusement of his unwelcome guests. Sometimes a freshman, who has become obnoxious by reason of some attempt at foppishness, is forced to sign a paper, so-

lemnly declaring that he will not use gold eye-glasses, or wax his moustache, or wear baggy trousers or diamond studs, for a year to come—that is, until he has bloomed out into the freedom and glory of Sophomoric dignity.

At Yale there used to be—and may be still, for aught I know—a society of wild fellows belonging to the Sophomore class, which assumed the classical name of “the Court of the Areopagus.” Its objects were at once festive and inquisitorial. The name of the Areopagus became a terror to all freshmen. The court met in secret, and all its doings therefore were invested in the freshmanic mind with the dread which is inspired by deeds done in the dark. Some morning it would be rumoured that the Areopagus had taken Snagsby, of the freshman class, into training: every freshman would thrill with the fear that his turn would come next. Snagsby’s class-mates would gather about him, and overwhelm him with questions; but likely as not, Snagsby would maintain an impenetrable silence, having taken the most awful oaths not to reveal what he had seen and suffered. It seemed to be the peculiar object of the court to try and punish the new comers to the university. It was said that they went through the forms of a criminal trial; that they judged and condemned their prisoners with great mock solemnity, and that thereupon the judges became the executioners of their own sentences. Tremendous stories were told of the unique costumes, the terror-inspiring disguises of the “Arcopagi;” and it was

nearly always found that, somehow or other, they managed to cower their victims into perpetual dumbness as to their doings. Once, however, the awful court of the Areopagus got hold of an exceptionally fearless freshman. He did all that they commanded, took the oaths, submitted with charming meekness to the ordeals. The next morning he went straight to the president of the university, and coolly exposed the whole affair. A number of the redoubtable Areopagi were forthwith expelled, and the court ceased its operations; to revive again, however, the next year, with all its ancient terrors.

Another custom is that of "rushing" the freshmen. The sophomores, at the close of the chapel exercises, gather *en masse* in front of the chapel door where the freshmen come out, and make a "perfect blockade;" the freshmen form in a body and endeavour to rush the sophomores away; and the struggling and scuffling which ensues is very apt to bring the college tutors down upon the offenders. I doubt whether there is ever a prouder day to the undergraduate than that on which he celebrates his accession to the rank of a sophomore, and leaves freshmanhood behind, a troublous memory and an uneasy dream. On a certain day in June, the senior class gives up the benches which it has occupied in the university chapel; the junior class succeeds to them; the sophomores assume the seats of the outgoing juniors, and the happy freshmen march proudly into the places which their ene-

mies, the sophomores, have just vacated. It is customary on this occasion, however, for the embryo Sophs to mark their appreciation of their newly-gotten honour in a somewhat demonstrative manner. The class assembles, adorned in imitation of what are supposed to be outward symbols of manly dignity; in short, they appear in ludicrously tall hats, and are supplied with ludicrously high and stiff paper collars. Thus attired they march in procession to chapel. At the door of the chapel they are usually confronted by the tutors, who devote themselves zealously to the task of preventing all who wear these obnoxious adornments from entering, and in forcibly depriving the wearers of their undevout ornaments. Some, however, manage to elude the tutors, and appear in the chapel aisle, to the amusement of the upper-class men and wrath of the faculty, in all their tall-hatted and high-collared effrontery. But this is only the prologue to the jubilee in honour of the occasion. The evening of the day is devoted to a grand orgie, which is significantly yecept the "Freshman Pow-wow." A pow-wow it usually is, of the most striking kind. Torches, masquerade dresses, and hifalutin speeches are the order of the night. The class, attired in every imaginable disguise and monstrosity of dress, assemble on the portico of the State House, which stands in a large open space, so that the whole scene may be witnessed from the college buildings. Here they dance, sing, and shout, listen to elaborately prepared harangues, teeming with highly-classical jokes

mingled with barbarous college puns, and indulge in songs written for the occasion by the rhymers of the class. Then they march about the town in torchlight procession, making night hideous, incurring the wrath of the matrons of young ladies' boarding schools by serenading the damsels under their windows, and doubtless calling down upon them the unheard maledictions of the order-loving people of the staid Connecticut town.

Early in Sophomore year there occurs another celebration, far more imposing and wild than the Powwow. Euclid has long been a terror and a bore to our undergraduate; he has drudged slowly through the dry old book, and finds himself, with great relief, at the last page during his first Sophomore term. This happy time arrived, it behoves him to celebrate it with all proper pomp, and at the same time to visit his tormentor with that ignominy which he deserves. On a certain October afternoon a rumour is spread that on that night the "Burial of Euclid" will take place. The arrangements for this ceremony are perfected with the most careful secrecy: no one, except the members of the committee, knows when or where it is to occur until within a few hours of the appointed time. At evening prayers in chapel small slips of paper are slyly passed from hand to hand, announcing that the Burial of Euclid will take place at such an hour and such a place, the password which is to be the open sesame to the ceremony being added. All the

undergraduates are admitted. The disguises of the participating class vary according to the wealth and fancy of each. While some are content with plain black dominoes and pasteboard masks, others become the cynosures of all eyes in the gorgeous robes of kings, the armour of mediæval knights, and the tunics and plumes of gallant cavaliers; others imitate skeletons, monks, magicians, and other characters of history, tradition, and superstition. There is, in an obscure street, a musty, gloomy-looking edifice, used indifferently by itinerant theatrical companies, popular lecturers, and political meetings, which bears the dignified name of the "Temple." This used to be in our college days—and may be still—the favourite scene of the Burial of Euclid. The hall in which the ceremony took place was narrow and dingy enough. It was approached by a steep flight of stairs. Armed with the word which was to be your talisman, you found at the portal two tall muffled and masked figures, who crossed swords athwart the entrance. As you entered, you gave the password to these in a whisper; and all the way up the stairs were similar figures with crossed swords, so that the password was demanded of you a dozen times before you found yourself in the hall itself. These passwords were usually classical quotations. This is to prevent the "town" from intruding. One was the first line of the *Æneid*, which must not only be said, but scanned:

"Arma virumque cano, qui primus Trojis ab oris;"

and it probably very effectually barred the entrance of the "unlettered."

On the small stage with which the Temple was supplied, you saw the various performers, in their unique costumes; in the centre stood a bier, upon which rested a coffin; and in the coffin was discernible a venerable face (of wax), with long snow-white hair and beard, eyes closed, and wrinkled features in calm repose. This was the counterfeit presentment of the once terrible Euclid himself. Programmes, adorned with appropriate devices of a funereal nature—death's heads and crossbones, funeral pyres and torches—were passed around; there were puns in the announcements—some good, mostly bad—such, for instance, as "Fisher's hornpipe, try-angle accompaniment;" or, "Hebrew melody—on a Jew's harp." Then the performance commenced. Some college songs were sung, among which was, of course, the inevitable "Gaudeamus;" then followed humorous dialogues, jokes, and mock-solemn poems; finally came the funeral oration over the venerable dead, by the chief wit of the class, in which as many jokes on triangles and parallelograms, squares and pentagons, were crowded as the genius of the funereal orator could invent. Toward midnight the marshals formed a torchlight procession; and they proceeded noisily through the streets, the coffin being borne with great pomp at their head. The effect of such a procession passing along the quiet streets at the dead of night may be imagined. The flaring

and flickering torches; the grotesque, imposing, and ghastly dresses; the coffin with its black cloth carried on before; the shouting, singing, and confusion,—form a spectacle curious, and even weird. The good citizens, awakened from their sleep, are fain to lean out of the windows and watch “the college boys” as they pass. The young ladies’ schools particularly are wont to be agitated, the procession cheering the “girls” as they pass under the windows; and here and there a white handkerchief flutters through the blinds as a signal of maidenly sympathy. The procession winds on its way beyond the town, out along a country road, where the effect is, if anything, stranger than ever. At last they arrive on a wooded knoll; they enter the copse, and reach an open space encircled with the trees yellowing and reddening in their autumn leaf-shedding. The wood is lit up bright and fitful by the hundred smoky torches; the disguised figures pass to and fro, and look, doubtless, much as the savages did whom Robinson Crusoe saw making night hideous on his lonely island. The coffin is placed upon a funeral pile in the centre of the space; the students group around it in a grotesque circle; the master of the ceremonies, dressed in priestly garb, holds a book in his hand; a red-hot iron is handed to him; he proceeds with this to pierce a hole quite through the volume; then he raises the book aloft, so that all the class may for once *see through Euclid*. This witticism performed, a second funeral oration follows; and finally is sung a

solemn and lugubrious dirge over the remains of the departed tormentor. The last act in this quaint drama has now come; the torches are set to the tar barrels upon which the coffin rests; and amid the hooting and capering of the students the flames ascend high and wild, the coffin cracks and crackles and bursts, the waxen face melts, the liquid sputters and frizzles in the fire; and the maskers depart, leaving the blackened remains of the ceremony behind them.

Among the most famous of Yale customs, still kept up with all its ancient prestige, is the "Wooden Spoon Exhibition." It probably took its rise as a burlesque of Junior Exhibition. Junior Exhibition occurs in the early spring, and consists of orations and dissertations from those members of the junior class who have won the highest scholastic rank. The exercises take place in one of the larger churches of the town, and are listened to by the *élite* of New Haven society. Wooden Spoon Exhibition was probably designed to compensate the students whose scholarship was not sufficiently high to entitle them to a junior appointment, and to give them an opportunity to "make a spread" in public. The object of the Wooden Spoon Exhibition is to present a testimonial of esteem to the favourite of the class; and this takes the shape of an enormous spoon, carved from expensive wood, elaborately mounted in silver, and bearing a silver plate with an appropriate inscription. The giving of a wooden spoon originated in the days when the students lived

in commons in the university itself; and it is said that it was formerly given to him who, by a vote of the class, should be designated as its greatest glutton. From this custom tradition tells us that it became the rule to give the wooden spoon to the *ugliest* man in the class; but in our own day the most popular class-mate is chosen for this formerly doubtful, but now substantial, honour. The Wooden Spoon Exhibition takes place in the largest public hall in the town. A committee of nine is chosen by the class; these are yelected the "Cochlaureati," a name suggestive, and regarded by the students as a highly honourable title. The Cochlaureati assume as their badge a small gold or silver spoon. These choose from among their own number, by election, him who shall be the Wooden Spoon man,—who is to receive the testimonial; but his election is kept profoundly secret even from the class itself, until the moment of the public presentation comes. Each member of the class is supplied with a certain number of tickets, giving admittance to seats in the hall; and the emulation to procure these, especially among the fair damsels of the town—who, like damsels everywhere, are intensely interested in everything the students do—is very exciting as the time approaches. At last the long-expected night arrives; the undergraduates crowd early in front of the hall; a famous brass band from New York has arrived, and has been stationed in the high gallery; the privileged fair ones of New Haven have begun to flock

hither, and are pouring in at the door through the file of policemen, arrayed like Solomon in all his glory. Finally, up goes the curtain, rolling majestically toward the top. Programmes, adorned by a heraldic shield with the bearings and crest of the Wooden Spoon, have been freely distributed; and the first performance is an "opening joke," or in college dialect, the "Opening Load." Perhaps the programme tells us that the Opening Load is to be a "torchlight procession," which turns out to be simply a procession of all the red-headed fellows of the class; or it may be that the Opening Load consists of the bringing on to the stage by some of the "Cochs" a huge chest, which being opened, out pops the chosen but hitherto unknown Wooden Spoon man. The university glee club come out and stand in a semicircle, in the most faultless of black dress suits, and sing "*Lauriger Horatius*," "*Gaudeamus*," "*Integer vitæ*," or "*The Song of the Spoon*." In imitation of the Junior Exhibition, one of the performers indulges in what is called the Latin Salutatory; consisting of a speech in which English and Latin are ludicrously mingled—English words with Latin terminations—and in which the Juniors and the ladies are extravagantly flattered, and the Freshmen unmercifully ridiculed. Then come humorous farces illustrative of college life, and acted with real mimic talent. The principal joke of these scenes consists in caricaturing the professors, especially those who have some peculiarity by which they are well

known. Very likely there are some of the university officers in the vast audience; but the exhibition is permitted as on the whole harmless, and a substitute for pranks which would be far from harmless. The most serious part of Wooden Spoon Exhibition is the presentation of the wooden spoon to the elected recipient. The Cochlaureati are discovered sitting in a semi-circle, and on a table in the centre lays the famous wooden spoon, some two feet long. "The Conquering Hero comes" having been discoursed by the famous brass band in the gallery, one of the Cochlaureati rises, takes the spoon, and turns to the fortunate recipient; and he, rising, for the first time betrays himself as the Wooden Spoon man to the university world. Then follow the address of the presenting "Coch," and the response of the Wooden Spoon man; and after this, a song from the glee club gives a finale to the performances, and the signal to the ladies to gather their shawls and opera cloaks about them and retire.

"Presentation Day" is the last on which the senior or outgoing class attends university exercises; with it virtually ceases their connection with Alma Mater. They have passed all their examinations, and have won the right to a bachelor's degree. This day occurs about the middle of June; a month later comes what is called Commencement Day. The interval between Presentation and Commencement—that is, between the virtual and the formal cessation of the connection with the university—is employed by those of

the Seniors who have orations to deliver in preparing their addresses. The rest of the class "loaf about," with nothing to do but enjoy themselves as best they may. But to return to Presentation Day. It is so called because the senior class is "presented" to the president as having passed all the examinations, and as entitled to receive the baccalaureate degree; and it is made the occasion of a ceremonious leave-taking of the outgoing class from the friends and associations of a happy four years' student life. The morning is reserved for the university exercises in chapel, and the afternoon to the more enjoyable social pastimes of the class on the college lawn. At ten o'clock the president and officers of the university, and the undergraduates and spectators, assemble at the chapel. The president is in his high desk, simply attired in a black silk gown; the professors and tutors occupy pews on the platform, on either side of him; the outgoing class occupy the pews of the centre aisle, the other classes the side pews, and the spectators (among whom are many ladies) the gallery. The ceremony of presentation over, the class orator and poet, elected by the class, mount the platform in turn, and deliver their compositions. Their effusions refer to the day, to the memories of the past, and forward-lookings into the future. The class is then invited to a lunch with the faculty in the great hall of the university—a cold but very palatable lunch, only puritanic in the absence of all potables stronger than lemonade. And now, for

the first time, the reverend president and his colleagues condescend to be facetious, and let the astonished about-to-be alumni into a new phase of their characters.

The Class Committee has meanwhile been busy making preparations for the performances of the afternoon. Under the noble and wide-spreading elms benches have been arranged in a large circle. Here, after the presidential lunch, the outgoing class assemble for their last jolly time. Long pipes and tobacco, and refreshments of a more substantial character, are provided; the class take their places on the benches, or throw themselves without order on the lawn, and prepare to listen to the Class Histories. The windows of the dormitories, which overlook the scene, are filled with the mothers, sisters, cousins, and sweethearts of the students, especially of the outgoing class; and outside the ring is collected a dense circle of the other undergraduates, some of whom stand on benches and chairs, the better to view the performances. The Class Historians, whose duty it is to infuse as much humour as possible into their pieces, and to describe their classmates as funnily and ludicrously as possible, proceed to give histories of the class, amid much applause and laughter at the well-known incidents and allusions they introduce. Then comes the sad parting of the members of the class with each other, each going round the ring and embracing and weeping over beloved friends from whom he is to part, and in company with whom he has spent four

long happy years. The last ceremony is that of marching in procession from one college building to another, and heartily cheering each in turn ; and then a song is sung, and a sprig of ivy set in the ground by the side of the library, on one of whose stones is an appropriate inscription. This last emblem and memorial deposited, the class breaks up, never to meet again as undergraduates.

In a month after Presentation the Commencement exercises follow, consisting mainly of orations and music in a neighbouring church, the conferring of degrees, a dinner of the faculty, alumni, and new graduates in the university hall ; the meetings of societies and old classes, and private entertainments in the dormitories and professors' houses.

CHAPTER XVII.

PROFESSIONAL SCHOOLS : *Government grants for education—Agricultural and commercial colleges—The West Point Military Academy—The Naval Academy.*

THERE are in the United States eighty-two theological seminaries, many of them attached to the universities and colleges ; of which fifteen are Baptist, fifteen Roman Catholic, thirteen Presbyterian, twelve Episcopalian, ten Lutheran, six Congregationalist, three Unitarian, and one Universalist. There are also fifty-one medical colleges and schools, twenty-two law schools, and perhaps ten or twelve scientific schools. Where these professional establishments are connected with a university or college, they have a separate faculty of three or four professors; whose exclusive task it is to instruct them ; but they are under the general university government, its president being the head of the professional as well as the undergraduate faculty. The students of the divinity school alone occupy rooms in a university dormitory set apart for their use ; the law, medical, and scientific students lodge in the town. These departments differ from the undergraduate in the method of instruction,

the larger liberty given to the students, and the division of the course. Instruction is given almost entirely by lectures. No examination is required of those entering the professional schools; the attendance on lectures and other exercises is usually voluntary. At Harvard the law student is entitled to the degree of Bachelor of Laws, without examination, after attending lectures two years; or, if he is a Bachelor of Arts, eighteen months: at Yale the same residence is required, and also an examination. The divinity school of each university or college naturally inclines to the dominant sect: thus the Harvard divinity students are mostly Unitarians; those at Yale, Congregationalists; those at Providence, Baptists; those at Middletown, Episcopalians. The divinity course usually occupies three years, when, after examination, the degree of Bachelor of Divinity is conferred; that of Doctor of Divinity does not follow in course, but is awarded as a purely honorary title to eminent clergymen. It is interesting to note that, at the divinity schools, no assent to the peculiarities of any denomination is required, either from the professors or the students. The annual charge to the Harvard divinity student is seventy-five dollars—which includes the rent of his room, the use of furniture, and tuition. In nearly all the divinity schools ample provision is made to educate free those poor young men who wish to enter the ministry. Besides the lectures on the literature of theology, ethical and moral philosophy, doctrine, and church history,

there are recitations in Hebrew and Greek, exercises in declamation and composition, and weekly conferences.

Passing the law schools, which have been described in another place, the medical schools occupy two years of study, are supplied with chemical laboratories, libraries, dissecting rooms, and anatomical museums, and combine with lectures the practical illustrations of the profession, and recitations from text books. The medical student performs experiments in dissecting, makes prescriptions, attends his professor to the hospitals, and toward the end of the course is intrusted with the charge of occasional cases. The annual tuition fees at the Harvard medical school are 40*l.*, with 1*l.* for matriculation, and 6*l.* for graduation.

The professional students lead a life quite separate from that of the undergraduates. They associate little with other branches of the university, choosing their companions in their own department and class. Neither do the different classes of the undergraduates associate much together.

The United States Government has, by the grant of vast tracts of its public lands for the support of colleges and public schools, lent a powerful aid to the cause of education. As early as 1785—before the Federal Union was established, nor the Constitution framed—the provisional Congress decided that in all the territory north-west of the Ohio there should be established in every six miles square a free school; and

to this end a grant of 640 acres of public land in each western township was made. So early in American history one thirty-sixth of all the public land was thus devoted to that "learning, which promotes civilisation and the pleasure of society." Later, the grant to each township was increased to 1280 acres. As the national growth has gone on, still further provisions have been made; as each territory or state was organised, public lands for the colleges, seminaries, and schools have been reserved. In all, no less than 71,808,272 acres have been given up to the promotion of education; the greater portion of this has, with advancing civilisation and the peopling of the West, rapidly increased in value, so as to keep apace with the ever-augmenting demands for common school and collegiate instruction. Now, every state in the Union—the older ones by early provisions and self-taxation, the newer by the possession of these school lands—has free schools and colleges enough for every child born or resident within its limits.

A new idea has, within a few years, been put into operation. The government has, besides the enormous grants just described, devoted no less than nine and a half millions of acres to the establishment, throughout the Union, of free agricultural colleges. Every state is supplied with one of these, without any expense to itself.

The agricultural colleges are provided with professors and tutors, with commodious edifices, including dormitories and lecture-rooms, and with *model farms*—

on which the students may put into practice the principles which are inculcated from the professor's desk. Farming is thus made a science, broad but practical; and the farmers educated by these colleges will doubtless use, and not abuse—as the unintelligent husbandman does—the precious gift of land.

There are, in many of the states, commercial colleges, where mercantile science and practice are taught; these are, however, mostly private institutions.

I come now to a subject which cannot fail to interest the English reader; for the English reader belongs to a nation whose military history has tended to give its subjects military pride and interest, and whose exploits on the sea make all naval subjects attractive to its people. It is that of military and naval education in the United States. There are two national schools devoted to the education of military and naval officers—the United States Military Academy on the Hudson, in New York; and the United States Naval Academy at the quaint old town of Annapolis, on Chesapeake Bay.

West Point has long been celebrated by novelist, poet, and traveller, for the exceeding beauty of its situation. The spot where ambitious youths are trained to lead the battalions of the Republic in wars and sieges—where Scott, Taylor, Grant, Sherman, and Sheridan, Lee, Johnston, and Longstreet, learned first to “shoulder arms,” and rattle ramrods, and storm parapets—is well worthy of its fame. It stands just

above the noble Hudson—the American Rhine—where the Hudson is broadest and grandest, where its lofty banks are highest and most lovely, whence you may not look on either side, but that your eye rests upon an enchanting landscape. Out of the world of bustle and dust, yet in the world of fashionable resort and plentiful companionship,—where the boys on one side may look far down upon the glistening waters of the proud river, or may wander on the other side through vast umbrageous forests,—it is hard to imagine a place better fitted to refresh and to inspire one. The military academy stands on a broad level plateau interposed between the high hills; and here, if you pass in the summer months, you will see the platoons and companies marching hither and thither; the white tents at regular intervals, and the stacks of arms disposed in cone-like groups. Near the spacious buildings are the neat residences of the instructors; in the vicinity are many country seats of New York nabobs—some castellated in imitation of the Rhine chateaux, others French cottages of luxurious dimensions, others large substantial edifices with verandahs and cupolas; and in the little town are commodious hotels, which are always full in summer of jaunty tourists, military celebrities, and the friends of the cadets.

The academy is controlled by the President and Congress; it is confided to the presidency of a brigadier-general of the army, who is called the Superintendent; and to the supervision of the inspector-

general of the forces. There is a military staff, comprising an adjutant, a quartermaster, a treasurer, and surgeons. The academic staff consists of the numerous instructors of the cadets—the subjects of instruction being artillery, cavalry, and infantry tactics, military and civil engineering, natural and experimental philosophy, mathematics, drawing, French, ethics and law, chemistry, mineralogy and geology, ordnance and gunnery, engineering, signals and telegraphy.

The rules of the academy partake of a military strictness. The cadet who enters at West Point is committed to no tender mercies. In gaining admission, in discipline, in examination, in personal as well as scholastic conduct, he is subjected to an absolute military despotism. The cadets—as the students are called—are appointed by the President. One is appointed for each congressional and territorial district, one for the district of Columbia, and ten “at large.” Each member of Congress has the right to nominate the cadet to be appointed from his constituency; the President invariably appoints the boys so nominated. The ten cadets at large are appointed directly by the President on application. The academy therefore contains about two hundred and sixty cadets. The candidates for the cadetships must be over seventeen and under twenty-two years of age, at least five feet high, and free from every deformity and disease unfitting them for military service. They must read and write well, perform accurately the opera-

tion of certain rules in arithmetic, reduction, simple and compound proportion, and vulgar and decimal fractions. They must also be posted in English grammar, geography, and American history. They are very stringently examined in these topics, and must understand them thoroughly; and they are inspected by a medical board, to try their physical qualifications. They are appointed a full year before their examination and entrance, that they may prepare themselves for the necessary tests; and they must be actual residents of the congressional district from which they are appointed. At first their position in the academy is conditional; in the middle of the year a semi-annual examination of searching severity takes place, on the studies then finished; and if the new comer passes it, he is admitted to the full rank of cadet. The academic year begins in September, and closes the latter part of June. In the latter month there is an annual examination, as stringent as the others; if the cadet fails in any of these, he is peremptorily dismissed from West Point; and failure means inability to come up to a very high and fixed standard of proficiency. During July and August the cadets engage in military practice and exercise, living in camp on the broad plateau throughout those months. The instruction is not only free, but the cadet receives pay to the amount of 8*l.* 6*s.* per month, and rations, to which he must confine himself. On graduation, the cadet is at once placed in one of the branches of the regular army, as a commissioned officer,

where he is obliged to remain for a certain period, and in which he may, if he chooses, continue for life.

The Naval Academy at Annapolis is governed by many regulations similar to those of West Point. The midshipmen are, as are the cadets, chosen from the congressional districts; they must be between fourteen and eighteen years of age when entering; no one manifestly undersized for his age is admitted; the candidates must pass an examination in reading, writing, spelling, arithmetic, geography, and grammar; the successful candidates must bind themselves to serve in the navy eight years; and they are advanced from class to class as fast as their proficiency warrants it. The academy is under the presidency of the Vice-Admiral, or second officer, of the navy, and is supplied with a large staff of naval, scientific, and civil instructors.

CHAPTER XVIII.

AMERICAN SOCIETY : *Domestic life and customs—Commencing housekeeping—Irish servants—An American breakfast and dinner—Peculiar dishes—Home comforts—Home amusements and pastimes.*

IT is in the domestic circle that the traits of a people most truthfully betray themselves ; the hearthstone is the most faithful mirror of society : the family is mother to the nation. But you cannot reach the true home-life by morning calls. Society masks men and women everywhere ; and madame is no more herself in her receiving toilet, than is the father of the family when, stiff and starch, he “ pays his respects ” to the social Juggernaut. To reach the inner and honest life, you must surprise madame in her morning gown ; you must dare to invade the sacred precincts of the kitchen ; you must see how she governs the children and servants ; what she has for dinner, and how she prepares it ; and what her habits are when, in the evening, she is surrounded by the home circle. You must be familiar with the house and everything in it ; you must live long enough under its roof to win the confidence, not only of father and mother and boys and girls, but of every nook, corner, and appendage of the

LOVE OF HOME.

household; the butcher and milkman, the cook chambermaid, the ovens and table-service, the book the library, the linen on the beds, the mysteries of the cellar. The tourist who does not succeed in this, as well light his cigars with his note-book, and his toothpicks of his quills.

Little is really known of American domestic life in England, or of English domestic life in America hence errors innumerable on both sides. Few of each country see the real homes in the other.

Within the houses which the foreign visitor landing in America, finds so very new and bright frail-looking as compared with the solid, time-worn mansions of his own land, are homes as cheerful wellbeloved, as cosy and attractive, as those of "our England." There is an error abroad in Europe, Americans are not domestic. No people are more domestic. Americans have inherited from England their love of home. To have a home of their own is the ambition of every youthful couple; obtained, it is a precious happy boon. It is not at all true that people prefer hotels and boarding-houses. Of these there are doubtless plenty in America; but they are not attractive to families who can afford to have a home to themselves. The American—pushing and driving and restless—he often is—likes a settled habitation, and is going hither and thither, knowing that when he is weary, there is a spot where he may rest: he can rest as warmly as the Briton,

“Happy the man whose wish and care
A few paternal acres bound.”

American boarding-houses are mostly asylums for bachelors and maiden ladies, for widowers and widows with marriageable daughters, and for young couples who use them as a sort of purgatory, through which they pass to the traditional delights of “love in a cottage.” There are highly-respectable, solemn boarding-houses, where you will find snappish and gossiping, but wealthy demoiselles of an unmentionable age; at whose table you will hear loud-talking retired volunteer colonels, and see reckless flirts verging on the marriageable limit; the inevitable talker of politics and the stocks; the broker’s clerk, who prates “business” and will not be silenced; the sentimental middle-aged bachelor, who has written “sonnets and madrigals” in his younger days; the pompous old lady in perennial silk, who “goes into the country” in the spring; and, hardly ever wanting, the shabby-genteel family, which lives in the top story and is obsequious, and the members of which glide humbly along the corridors and over the soft-carpeted staircase. But there are not to be found in America any “lodging-houses,” as lodging-houses are in England. Mrs. Bardell has no Yankee counterpart. If you inhabit a boarding-house, you must take your meals at the landlady’s table with the rest, having no choice of the dining-hour or the dishes, and pay a lump sum for food and apartments. You are not worried lest, when you spend a day in the suburbs,

your room is made the scene of tea-drinking and gossip on the part of "a few friends" of your landlady; you have no need to watch your sugar, or to examine, with painful misgiving, your cold joint, lest a part of it has been abstracted to grace the basement table. The American landlady, like the English, has "seen better days;" she is quick to confide her griefs; she is sometimes not too lavish with her fowl and her pudding; but at all events you are rid of the trouble of "providing yourself."

At the hotels you will rarely find a well-to-do family settled down *en permanence*. To live in a hotel is hardly thought respectable—and in love of respectability the Americans are quite the match of the English. The hotels do very well for the temporary sojourner; but it is not agreeable to reside constantly in proximity to bustling travellers, or to find oneself the near neighbour of opera-singers and negro minstrels, of adventurous bachelors, loungers, and retired *roués*.

The newly-married pair are restless enough until a snug little habitation has been found, and the upholsterers, the carpenters, and the carpet-fitters are fairly at work. Perhaps the house chosen is in one of the side streets of the town—a bright-red brick building, shaded by pretty trees, with blinds which seem to English eyes so painfully green, with either a bell or a knocker, but *not* both, and brass door-knobs burnished dazingly bright each day by the maid; you may see dozens of maids, if you pass along the streets of a morn-

ing, rubbing away on the little round balls. The house rented, or, if the bridegroom's papa is well-to-do, bought as his bridal gift, the husband has long consultations with furniture men, is seen anxiously looking over the heads of the excited crowd in the auction room, now and then frantically waving his arm and breaking out into an abrupt bid; supervises the painters, and carpet men, and locksmiths, as they brush and cut and hammer, and is in a general confused state of fever and importance, anxious to get settled, and feeling mightily proud of at last possessing his own establishment. Meanwhile, behold the bride and mistress of the little house, her pretty head bound up in a linen bandage, a long apron covering her morning gown, gloves on her delicate hands—behold her in command of the cleaning women, discovering with keen eye the spots which they have omitted; bustling now into the kitchen to see how cook progresses with the *first dinner*, which is to be served up in the midst of confused heaps of chairs, tables, and mats—the couple being fain to sit on the edges of boxes, and to dispense, for once at least, with napkins and tablecloths. You may see at a glance that this sprightly, bright-looking Yankee bride is already an adept in the domestic arts. American girls are taught to perform household duties in their early teens. In some of the larger cities,—for instance, in fashion-worshipping “Gotham,” as New York is called,—the bachelors may complain with justice that the young ladies are too

exclusively ornamental ; that they are too much enamoured of the frivolities and dissipations of society ; that they are too useless to be good wives, too greedy of wealth to be loving partners. There are no more extravagant folk living than the fashionable ladies of New York. But they are striking exceptions to the mass of American girls. These go into the kitchen, and observe the arts which are practised there ; they make up dishes, concoct puddings, prepare sauces. They are left in charge of the household, supervise the daily routine, and overlook the labours of the servants. It is not at all disgraceful for the most wealthy and finely educated young lady to learn and to practice the art of making home an inestimable comfort. The most aristocratic ladies—and there is a social aristocracy in the republic, though not a titled or hereditary one—do not think it beneath them to be good housekeepers. Mrs. Madison and Mrs. Lincoln, wives of Presidents, used to go daily into the White-House kitchen, to see that nothing was awry, and to make this or that suggestion about the dishes to be set before the presidential guests.

The young wife is therefore already a domestic artist ; at first she takes upon herself the duties of maid-of-all-work. The house being set in order, her next and difficult task is to seek a servant. She advertises, or applies at a situation office. Forthwith the house is besieged by innumerable “ Biddies ;” every one of whom you recognise in an instant as natives of “ ould Erin.” More than nine-tenths of the

domestic servants in the Northern States are Irish. In the hotels and boarding-houses, in town mansions and country retreats, you will everywhere hear the round rolling brogue ascending from the kitchens and echoing through the upper chambers. It is only in the remote villages of New England and the far West that you will find native American girls doing service. German servants are few and far between; and despite her verdancy, the American mother of a family finds in the freshly-arrived Irish lass excellent material for household work. She is robust, has marvellous health, which betrays itself on round rosy cheeks, is very quick to learn and easily taught—if you will only bear, meanwhile, with her Hibernian errors—and seems never to find her work too much for her. Every emigrant-ship from Cork carries its quota of embryo cooks, chambermaids, and nurses. Many American ladies prefer the green girl who has just come off ship, and is ludicrously raw and blundering, to the Biddy who has long been used to life in America. You have to begin; it is true, at the beginning with her; her cooking abilities are, at first, usually confined to the baking and peeling of “praties.” But then she is honest, she may be moulded; her mistress may inculcate her own peculiar culinary style—and every matron has her special system—she has not yet attracted innumerable Irish beaux and “cousins;” is not yet infected by the mania of dress. She is apt, however, soon to become uncomfortably social in her

tastes, picks up cronies, male and female, with alarming facility, and is prone to hold high carnival below stairs with the family supplies. Yet, with all her faults, she is invaluable.

Sometimes, not often, the housewife has troubles various and discouraging with her servants. One is manifestly dishonest; for the bridal spoons do most certainly disappear, and the sugar and bacon fairly melt away. Another is insufferably impudent, and asserts an overbearing authority in the kitchen. A third is too fond of company, and insists on having holidays twice a week. A fourth is slovenly and careless, and but half makes up the beds. Still a fifth is corrupted by contiguous maids, and becomes extravagant in dress, and too much above her work. Despite these discomforts, the wife is happy, for she has a home. She keeps, perhaps, a chambermaid and a cook, and finds them, for the while, plenty on her hands; by and by, a nurse is naturally added to the little household. Few couples in the cities keep a horse and carriage; but suburban residents, if they can afford it, usually do.

If you look in on our happy couple some six months after marriage, when the gossamer veil of the honeymoon is lifted, and the substantial humdrum quality of married life has discovered itself, you will find them, between seven and eight in the morning, seated at breakfast. You are welcome to a place at the table; and you are not long in discovering that the American morning meal is quite different from the English.

First, the mistress passes you an excellent cup of coffee; there is also, if you prefer it, tea or cocoa. You have better tea in England, but as for coffee—? This American concoction of Java will possibly strike you as a favourable contrast. With the beverage you are invited to take a steaming hot roll, home-made that morning; revolting, possibly, to your sterling English idea of health, but which, if you can overcome your sanitary repugnance, is enjoyable. The Americans, almost without exception, eat hot rolls for breakfast, raised with yeast overnight, and baked just before coming to table. Perhaps you will be asked if you will have “a biscuit”? Meanwhile, you see no biscuit. “Biscuit” in *Americaneese* (to coin a word) means what “roll” does in England—a little round bread loaf; and the English biscuit is called in America a “cracker.” An American gentleman who entered a London shop and asked for some crackers, was struck dumb with amazement, when the clerk, after rummaging in the top shelves a long time, offered him materials for a fire-works display. He wished for something to eat, and they gave him pyrotechnics! One more culinary difference, and we will proceed with breakfast. What the English call a “tart,” the Americans call a “pie;” what the Americans call a tart, the English call a tartlet, or little tart. An American, fresh from the steamer, spent his first night in Britain at a little hotel on the borders of Loch Lomond. Half-famished by his long ride from Liverpool, he asked

what he could have? The waiting-maid replied that there were some excellent *tarts* in the house.

He was very hungry.

"Well, bring me half-a-dozen of the nicest."

The maid stood and stared.

"Half-a-dozen tarts, sir?"

"Certainly; I could eat a score."

The maid mastered her emotions and departed; and presently, behold a procession of domestics, bringing in, each, two large-sized English tarts, any one of which would satisfy the most capacious of stomachs. The Yankee was thinking of his native tarts—and thus learned his first English lesson.

You not only have coffee and rolls, but with them steak, or chops, or ham and eggs, or, possibly, some fried tripe or liver. Fried potatoes, roasted tomatoes, and melons (the last eaten at the beginning), not seldom appear on the American breakfast table; the morning meal, you observe, is much more substantial and various than in England, where one is content with eggs, or cold meat, toast, and coffee. There is yet another luxury peculiar, in summer, to the American table. The climate is far colder in winter, far hotter in summer, than that of the British Isles. In winter the snow covers the ground, often during three months at a time; it lies sometimes two, three, four feet deep; it drifts in great mounds against the doors and over the fences; the icicles hang thick and long from the roofs; the wind cuts through you like a

sharp blade ; and one day, as you are walking along, some one will rush up to you, clap their hands without ceremony over your nose, and apologetically give you the pleasing information that that organ is freezing. You meet men and women with their heads bound up like Egyptian mummies ; the breath freezes on the beard, and the man of thirty looks a very Santa Claus. In summer the heat beats down thick and oppressive ; you long for a shade, though it be but that of a gable end ; you pant, are languid, thirsty, blind.

In these summer heats, the Americans have the great boon of unlimited *ice*. The winter produces it in ample quantity, the summer makes it a universal need. There is ice everywhere ; ice in the great metallic “pitcher” on the breakfast and dinner table, ice on the butter, ice on the radishes, ice for the meat and fish in the cellar, ice for the beverages—the water and claret and punch, the “sherry cobbler” and “Tom and Jerrys.” It is dirt cheap ; for twopence you get a large lump of it, beautifully green and chrySTALLINE, weighing five or six pounds. The trade in ice is a large and prosperous one ; there are companies who cut it from the lakes and rivers, store it in vast ice-houses in straw, and in summer send it through the cities in large wagons built for the purpose. If, any summer morning, you pass early along the streets, you will observe at every basement door one of these huge, refreshing, tempting lumps, left there by the ice-man, awaiting the maid. Perhaps you will meet the ice-

cart, and see the man deftly cutting and weighing the blocks, while little streams of water drip from his cart and spatter on the pavement, and street urchins stand about watching for a little piece to suck. The Americans have a large square box, fitted inside with metal, which they call a "refrigerator;" in this the provisions, which need to be kept cool, are stored, with ice upon them; and the refrigerator is so constructed as to keep the ice from melting. You will not fail to find, in summer, a pitcher of ice-water on every American side-board, and at every meal.

Melons and radishes are favourite breakfast relishes. The melons are eaten, either with pepper and salt, or with sugar. Tomatoes, which grow in great plenty, and are very cheap, are almost universally eaten. They may be roasted in bread crumbs, or stewed, or eaten raw; and in the season they are often eaten at every meal.

When you think you have finished your breakfast, a dish peculiarly American, if it is winter, makes its appearance. It is hard for the American to rise from his winter breakfast without his *buckwheat cakes*. They are eaten everywhere, and nothing could be nicer. They are made of the best buckwheat ground very finely; they are mixed and raised overnight, fried and brought smoking hot to the table; they are light and spongy, and are eaten with butter and treacle, or sugar-cane molasses.

Among the table customs which prevail, is an ancient one, which is dear to the New England heart.

This is the habit of having a "baked pork and bean and brown bread" breakfast on Sunday morning. The beans are large and dry, baked with small pieces of pork fat; the "brown bread" is peculiar to New England, moist and rich, of a light reddish brown colour, baked in the shape of a rimless silk hat, and made of Indian corn and rye meal mixed in milk.

You rarely see at the American dinner-table any other beverage than water. The English fashion of having ale or stout at dinner does not exist. Wine is very expensive, and it is only once in a while that it appears on the tables even of the rich—so seldom that it cannot be called a custom. Sherry, port, claret, madeira, and champagne are rare luxuries, and only appear on festive occasions, or in the houses of epicures and wealthy foreigners. An American dinner is usually wanting in soup—you plunge *in medias res* at once. There are, perhaps, two dishes of meat, or one of meat and one of fish; and the whole dinner, excepting the sweets and dessert, is set on at once. The Americans eat less meat, and many more vegetables, than the English; but they are quite like their British ancestors and cousins in their love of roast beef and mutton, which are the usual meat dishes at the American table. Besides the joint and boiled dish which occupy either end of the table, you find placed before you some half-dozen kinds of vegetables: there are Irish potatoes, sweet potatoes (what are called in England "yams:" when in the season they are universally eaten in America);

stewed, or roast, or raw tomatoes; vegetable marrows (called there "squash"); turnips, and "green corn" (Anglicè "maize"), eaten from the cob, with butter and pepper. After being helped from the joint, you proceed to take a little of each vegetable, which you put on your plate with the meat, eating them without a course for each dish. After finishing this more substantial part of the dinner, you are invited to partake of pudding or pie (the latter term being used both for sweet tarts and for meat pies)—and famous are the Yankee mince, pumpkin, and apple pies; after which fruit in its season, nuts, and raisins, are set before you, and end the meal.

The evening meal—tea or supper—is much simpler. Sliced and buttered bread, cold meat, preserves or jams, and tea, compose the dishes; sometimes coffee or cocoa is used. The practice which obtains in many English families of having late suppers is very rare in America. You seldom find families taking a meal after tea at seven, and even that meal is not often a heavy one.

Almost every family makes its own bread, a large oven being built near the range; there are therefore but few bakers, who thrive mostly on occasional custom, or that of the poorer classes. The home-loving American invariably prefers the home-made bread, and even the hotels usually have a baking establishment of their own. On great occasions—at a dinner party or large supper—the Americans follow the French or Russian rules, and the meal is much like that which you would

see at Paris or St. Petersburg. There are seasons of festivity when particular dishes are a matter of course—as is the case in every country.

Large, and luscious, and juicy—scarcely to be appreciated by the English epicure, who is forced to be content with a bivalve far inferior—is the American oyster. The oyster may perhaps be called the national dish—it is at least the great dish of the Atlantic states. They are within the reach of every man, for they are cheap and plenteous. How many thousands—scattered through great city and little village—earn their living by selling and preparing oysters, it would be hard to estimate. There is scarcely a square without several oyster-saloons; they are aboveground and underground, in shanties and palaces. They are served in every imaginable style—escalloped, steamed, stewed, roasted “on the half shell,” eaten raw with pepper and salt, devilled, baked in crumbs, cooked in *pâtés*, put in delicious sauces on fish and boiled mutton. The English oyster is but a poor shrivelled pigmy of a fish in comparison; these are large and round, sweet and tender, and often so portly that you must divide before swallowing them. The oyster is the *sine qua non* of all dinner parties and picnics, of all night revels and festive banquets. For tenpence you may have a large dish of them, done in any style you will, and as many as you can consume. The restaurants—ostentatious and humble—are in the season crowded with oyster lovers: ladies and gentlemen, workmen and seam-

stresses, resort to them in multitudes, and for a trifle may have a right royal feast.

Most Americans breakfast between seven and eight ; dine between one and two ; have tea between seven and eight. The more fashionable circles dine later—at five or six ; and those merchants or professional men who, doing business in town, live in the suburbs—as very many do—take dinner later in the afternoon, when they return home after their day's work is finished. These have a restaurant lunch in town in the middle of the day.

The houses, although they appear to the English visitor so slight and frail,—many of them being built of wood, but mostly, in the towns, of red brick, and comparatively few of stone—are most comfortable, both in summer and in winter. In the latter season they are warmed by great furnaces, which are located in the basement or cellar, and from which pipes carry the heat to the entries and through all the rooms ; the warmth issuing from small iron “registers” in the floor. In the towns and villages the houses are supplied with gas, and all the latest water conveniences. You will seldom find a house without a comfortable bath-room, where you may indulge in a foot-bath, or a shower-bath, or a full-length bath. Nearly every one bathes at home ; and in many American towns it would be difficult to find public bath-houses. Most cities are supplied with water in plentiful quantities from lakes at some distance, whence the water is brought in aqueducts to the great

réservoirs. Boston is supplied from Lake Cochituate, and New York from Croton—both distant from the cities a number of miles. The water is thus fresh and quite untainted, which the water of rivers can hardly ever be—and is equally good for drinking and for washing purposes. Nearly every family has its washing done at home; in many cases the flat roofs are used for putting up lines on which to dry the clothes. The streets are kept clean in the same manner as in London—by watering-carts, kept at the expense of the city.

One thing which very forcibly strikes an American walking on his first morning in an English city, is the number and quaintness of the *street cries* which assail his ears. He discovers them to proceed from the costermongers, the milkmen, and so on, who supply the daily needs of the kitchen and table. There are few or no street criers, or itinerant sellers of meat and vegetables, in the American towns. The lady of the house, attended by her maid, or one of the servants, goes to the butcher's in the morning and orders her joint or fowls; thence to the small shop-market, and selects the vegetables; thence to the grocer's, for the little articles needed there. The butcher, after receiving his orders, goes about delivering them, and so with the rest. The people of the smaller towns are supplied with milk by the suburban farmers themselves, who come into town with their wagons loaded with huge tin cans, from which they mete out to each house its desired quantity. The American housekeeper usually buys her butter in

casks for the winter, enough to last till the following spring.

The evenings are mostly spent in the home circle, or in friendly calls among the neighbours. Pater-familias, who drives himself desperately enough in business hours—who loves his counting-room, and is fond of watching the stocks, and rejoices in his daily bargains, and has hardly time to snatch a morsel at noon—likes, in the evening, to sit quietly by his own fireside, or indulge in a chat with neighbour Johnson on the state of business or of the nation. He is cosy and happy in his own drawing-room, and is a thorough devotee of his evening paper. His after-dinner cigar and *Daily Herald* keep him employed early in the evening; later, he perhaps reads aloud, or has a game of chess or backgammon with his eldest daughter. His good wife meanwhile sits by, sewing or reading, or mingling in the pastimes of her children. The young people are seldom without some home amusement with which to while the evening away. The daughters have invariably been taught to play upon the piano, however limited the paternal purse; music is always in fashion; and you may hear everywhere the Scotch and English ballads familiar to English damsels, as well as opera airs, “classical” music, negro or martial melodies, and on Sunday evening psalms and hymns. It is quite true, as has been remarked by many tourists, that Americans have, as a nation, a sombre side to their character; but the trait comes with the fever of a sharp

active life, and is not seen in the young. The boys and girls, the youths and maidens, are as boisterous and full of fun, as fond of games and indefatigable in sport, as in England. Innumerable are the home pastimes which you may see going on in American drawing-rooms. Americans are little ceremonious; they easily make acquaintances; intimacies grow up quickly; everybody is on sociable terms with his neighbours. The young people of a neighbourhood, or who belong to a particular church, are fond of getting together on all occasions — of having little informal parties at one house or another, and devising games to pass the time. Often the young people of a church have cosy weekly gatherings at each other's houses in turn through the winter, which they aptly call "sociables." Now there will be a rage for private theatricals; some hitherto "mute inglorious" Hamlet will urge on the project with a view to his own histrionic fame; then rehearsals, more jolly than the grand occasion itself, take place, flirtations go on, and there are all sorts of jokes perpetrated and tricks played. A little stage is fitted up in one drawing-room, and a curtain hung at the folding-doors; in the other, sofas and fauteuils are wheeled up in a row, where the audience of select friends and happy parents are seated, and all goes off merrily; the more mistakes there are, the greater the sport. Impromptu charades and farces are popular; and the traditional games of "blind man's buff," "hunt the slipper," "Copenhagen," "puss in

the corner," "proverbs," and so on; not to speak of "old maid," "everlasting," "grab," and other games of cards; dominoes, drafts, and bagatelle, are kept up with all their ancient vigour.

"Surprise parties" are a very frequent and often amusing custom in America. The friends of a lady or gentleman resolve to give him or her a "surprise;" they assemble at an appointed rendezvous on a certain evening, provided with ample hampers containing the materials for a substantial supper. Some member of the family or household of the person to be "surprised" is let into the secret, that the latter may be sure to be found at home. The party then proceed to the house to carry out the surprise. The table is set in the dining-room without the knowledge of the recipient, who, when it is ready, is led in to a feast prepared as if by magic in his or her own house. Such scenes give rise to much joking and bantering, are often productive, as may be conceived, of ludicrous situations, but also are occasions of pleasant social gatherings, the more enjoyable because they are informal and carried out on the spur of the moment.

The customs of visiting and returning visits are not very different from those prevalent in England; but perhaps there is less ceremony among the Americans. Society, or Fashion, is doubtless as absolute a goddess in New York as in Paris; but in the greater portion of America it fails to impose its more rigid rules upon the people. The freedom of association is

possibly carried, in some cases, to an opposite extreme ; still, society, viewed from the broadest standpoint, is a faithful reflection of that democratic idea which lies at the base, alike of the history and the institutions of the Republic. Wealth is too much worshipped ; men work too feverishly hard ; there is too little time given to recreation and health ; and men of riches are too apt to be sought after and honoured without possessing the merit which should alone make honour envied. Yet this is a social phase most prominently seen in the great commercial cities ; among the quiet country population, which you hear little of, and which counts as nothing to the ordinary tourist, there is less of this feverish business rush, more of hearty enjoyment of the pleasures of life.

CHAPTER XIX.

AMERICAN TOWN LIFE : *The public parks—A walk down Broadway—The business quarter—The wharves—Ice-cream saloons and bar-rooms—Street sights—"Five Points"—The West-end—Self-made men—New York society—A fashionable party—Lionising—Society in Boston, Philadelphia, the West, the South—American deference to ladies—Clubs—Markets—Barber "saloons"—Liveries and heraldry—Firemen.*

THERE are few American cities which do not possess extensive and beautiful parks, free to all the world. You never see anywhere those closed parks and grounds only to be entered by the neighbouring householders who have keys, which are found in London. The American parks are constructed and kept in order with lavish expense. Central Park, in New York, is perhaps the finest triumph of art in imitating and decorating nature to be found in the Union. It is full of fine carriage drives, of pretty winding artificial lakes, of rustic harbours and quaint grottoes, and lovely copses. It is adorned with statues and fountains, is supplied with restaurants and skating-rinks, racecourses and velocipede-paths. Boston Common is celebrated for its his-

torical memories, and for the natural beauty of its situation. It has broad avenues shaded by stately and umbrageous trees, wide expanses of lawn, pretty hillocks, the famous "frog-pond," and ground set apart for military reviews and cricket or base-ball games. Fairmount, in Philadelphia, and the Capitol and President's parks in Washington, are equally noted for their beauty, and the refreshing resort they afford both to rich and poor. These parks are mightily enjoyed by the people. There take place military reviews and out-door games; there you may see in the morning—much as you do in Hyde Park or St. James's—hundreds of maids tending "missus's" children, at the same time listening to the gallant speeches of their wooers; there are to be witnessed the endless and noisy torchlight processions which inevitably attend the political contests; there distinguished guests of the town are received and fêted; there are set off the balloons and fireworks on Independence Day; there, in winter, you will see the boys whizzing on their sleds over the icy walks, and the sleighs, with their jingling bells and dapper ponies, shooting along the now white-crueted drives.

The prevailing impression upon the English visitor, in walking through the streets of an American city, would doubtless be the general appearance of brightness, newness, and feverish bustle. Broadway, the principal New York thoroughfare, is a typical American street. Omnibuses, mixed up with carriages and

wagons of every shape, size, and finish, bounce hither and thither, and you think every moment that the drivers on top must inevitably shoot off among the vehicles below. The shops are new, bright, clean, brilliant with their various wares; you observe that the Americans call them "stores"—a "shop" being the place where carpenters, tailors, and so on, do their work. The buildings are all sorts of heights: there stands a huge marble palace—which you find to be a great dry-goods establishment; and next to it a little two-story building; then a brick edifice three storeys high; next a broad square hotel; the roofs, as you glance far up the street, rise and fall in an undulatory wave. Streams of people—mostly with anxious, careworn, hurried faces—float by you, to or from the business quarter; everybody seems to be in a hurry, from the delicate poorly-clad girl who flits by on her way to her dressmaking or type-setting, to the wrinkled, well-dressed man of wealth, hastening to throw his thousands upon the fortune-wheel of speculation. There is, you observe, an "up town" and a "down town." If caprice takes you down town, you soon find yourself in the very whirl and maelstrom of commerce and trade. What the City is to London, down town is to New York and Boston. Here you will wander out of Broadway into long and somewhat irregular streets—the buildings are older and mustier than in the main thoroughfare. At intervals you observe large square edifices which seem very hives of feverish industry, and

by reading the glaring signs,—the business houses are fairly hidden by signs—you learn that these are the great newspaper offices, the *Herald*, *Times*, *Tribune*. Very different affairs from the modest quarters with which the London press are mostly fain to be content—for these are palaces reared by the generosity of “public opinion.” Then here is a long, rather musty street—the Paternoster-Row of New York—where are exposed for sale all sorts of books, new and old; just beyond is the cramped looking Post-office; a little further you come upon a thoroughfare, which, if it is mid-day, seems to have gone fairly mad. Turn the corner and you are “on ‘Change.” These frantic fellows are stock-brokers and stock-gamblers—the “bulls” and “bears” of New York. Here is the thirst for gold concentrated and at its bitterest. What a caldron of human passion! They shout, and rush hither and thither, and write little notes with which clerks hurry up the street. Some gnash their teeth and wipe their feverish temples; others pass radiant and triumphant. Deeper still into the down town quarter, you reach great granite warehouses, long blocks of stores; strange labyrinths of streets choked with commerce, where want and beggary appear gaunt amid the money-makers. Everywhere you note how much more hurried and hot is the business fever than in London city. Enter one of the lunch-rooms, you find the merchants seated in rows before the long counters, hastily swallowing their food, and meanwhile chattering loud and fast about the money-

market and the last gold quotation. Further still, you reach the wharves: here lie the ships of all nations; here you may buy and eat oysters at the little stands on every side—many of them presided over by grinning negresses with red and yellow handkerchiefs wound high around their woolly heads; here too are anchored the palatial steamboats, with their high palisaded decks and gilt and fancy figure-heads, ready to take you either southward to Philadelphia or Baltimore, or northward to Connecticut and Boston viâ Long-Island sound. There is a great confused mass of hogsheads and cotton bales, of boxes and rope-piles; and here too, as among the men of trade, are hurry and bustle and fever-heat. Finally you come to a curious round building, a sort of circular fort, standing at the water's edge upon a jutting point of land—Castle Garden. Here, likely enough, you see a little tug steaming up; it has just left that portly steamer which rests stolid in the distance; these poorly-clad, eager folk who flock off it on the landing are emigrants just from the Faderland and the Emerald Isle. How anxiously they gaze on the new land where lies the secret of fortune, weal or woe! How nervously they look about to see if Hans or Pat, who have been over a year or two, and promised to meet them here, have kept their word. Meanwhile the Customs officers have begun to rummage in the miscellaneous pile of luggage; that Frenchman is *sacrer-bleu*-ing and chattêring his native lingo because they are spoiling his shirts and have confiscated his cigars; this lady is waxing

eloquent on the subject of Italian trinkets; hackmen are hanging about to secure their steamer fares.

Regaining the main thoroughfare, we wend our way up the brilliant street, where the shops vie with Regent Street and Rue de Rivoli in the richness and variety of their wares, and enter one of the numerous ice-cream saloons. They have, in summer, ice cream of every flavour, and almost invariably good, on every square. You enter a long gaudily adorned saloon, where are sofas and fauteuils, little square tables marble-topped, and waiters, male or female, hurrying with dishes to and fro. Here the ladies—plenty of them—who are shopping down town, have tarried for refreshment; loafers and young dandies are sipping the deliciously cool concoction. You order your ice-cream, of whatever flavour you prefer; it is brought to you in a little pyramid; sponge cake or pound cake accompanies it. Or, possibly, you prefer soda water. It is very different from English soda water. At the counter is a square marble “fountain,” with numerous silvered taps and little cranks, over each the name of a syrup. Naming your flavour, the attendant turns one of the cranks, and out spurts a thick syrup into the long goblet he holds to it; he adds ice; then he turns another crank, and the soda water fizzes and sputters and foams into the syrup. Drink it quickly, and you will pronounce it delicious. But if in place of these refreshments you prefer a cooling drink of wine or liquor, you have but to patronise one of the thousand

bar-rooms which greet your eyes as you pass up the street. Some of them are underground, some on a level with the street. There is a long counter opposite the door; behind it are shelves, on which are desecrated bottles of every shape and kind fancifully arranged, containing all the nectars and poisons for which man yearns. On the walls are fancy woodcuts, plain or daubed, representing prize fighters or dancing girls, racing matches or festive parties. There are loungers standing about, quaffing a variety of beverages, and talking in an easy familiar way. At little tables sit those who would be more at ease. Will you have "Tom and Jerry," or "sherry cobbler," or "claret punch," or "brandy cocktail," or "eggnog," or "mint julep," or "milk punch," or "gin sling"—the variety is endless. The barman is skilled in his art; he mixes the drinks with an artistic ease which surprises you. He is a man with painfully crisp and shiny hair, with a murderously black moustache, and a dazzling constellation of diamonds in his shirt bosom. He receives your order with a prompt "Yessir," and proceeds to his task. He has two long pewter goblets; having put in the ingredients, he dashes the concocted liquor from one goblet to the other, holding them at arm's length from each other, and making a finely calculated liquid rainbow of the beverage from one to the other. You are fain to confess, on sipping the liquid through the straw he supplies, that his labour has not been vain. At the sides of the bar-room are stalls, sepa-

rated from each other by high partitions, where you may have "oysters served in every style;" and you observe, at one end of the bar, a pile of bivalves in the shell, from which, when he has received an order for oysters, the barman takes a supply, deftly opens the oysters with a curious knife which he has by him, and laying them neatly on a plate, serves them up.

Along the thoroughfare you observe numerous stands—much as in London—where petty street trades of every sort are flourishing. There are "hot corn" stands, "roast chestnut" stands, "hot potato" stands, quack medicine stands, fruit stands, pea-nut stands, newspaper stands, and toy stands. You are amazed at the energy of the news-boys—most of them diminutive, ragged, merry, impudent little Paddies—as they rush hither and thither with their arms full of wisdom, at a penny an instalment. You wonder at the curious devices which greet you on the signs, which fairly hide the walls. You see, on the streets branching off on either hand, long iron tracks, whereon glide smoothly the "horse cars," crowded with passengers, on whose rear people are desperately hanging, dropping off here and there as they reach their destination. You hear all sorts of languages, and the familiar brogue of Erin often strikes upon your ears; for here the Irish are to be counted by the thousand, digging gutters and building houses and cleaning sewers, and taking on themselves the greater part of the drudgery to be done in town and country.

There is little or no beggary and want discoverable in these larger streets; to see that you must repair to the slums of the "Five Points." This is the ruffian quarter of New York—its Seven Dials and Billingsgate. Five streets meet in a little filthy square; hence the name. Five wretched, narrow, crowded, dirty, noisy streets; families by the dozen in each house; children by the score in all the gutters; oaths and obscenity echoing everywhere; fighting, drunkenness, crime, in perpetual carnival. But mark this of the Five Points and similar quarters in all the American cities, that nine-tenths of their population is foreign. You will not find one native American in ten among them. They are the tristful present which Europe sends to America; mostly the lowest Irish, French, and Germans—criminals and beggars, deserted from the old countries, banded together by want and natural love of lawlessness in the new. A large majority of the crimes committed in the United States are the work of foreigners; figures prove it. Five Points, and its likes elsewhere, are mostly foreign colonies, dominated by native roughs, who lead them in gangs, rouse them to riot, and use them to corrupt and control the ballot box. Yet even Five Points is hardly so sadly fallen as the worst quarters of London and Paris, for this reason: that while in overcrowded Europe there is not work enough for the people, thousands of whom are therefore driven, as it were, by misery to crime; there is in America room enough for all; crime is not forced

upon men ; if they will, they can find work ; and thus the criminal population is reduced to the naturally vicious or the exceptionally unfortunate.

We are glad to get away from Five Points, with its reeking filth, its wretched humankind, its noisome smells, and hasten to the newest and brightest phase of the American city. As you proceed up town, quiet and insouciant ease takes the place of the bustle and hurry of the down town quarters. Solemn, lofty mansions, some "swell-front," many built of beautiful brown stone, and even marble, growing more and more luxurious and stately as you progress, relieved by pretty parks full of trees, flowers, and lawns, and supplied with broad shady pavements, apprise you that you are among the upper ten thousand. Spacious squares and wide avenues are met at every turn : the luxuriance of wealth here apparently outstrips Grosvenor-square and Park-lane, and vies with the Champs Elysées. This is the region where dwells in ostentatious splendour the moneyed aristocracy of Gotham. The equipages in the streets have become uniformly showy and ornate. There is something in the tranquillity which prevails that induces the wealth worshipper to walk softly, and to regard the high portals and the lofty windows with a sort of awe. You stop to gaze at the ladies as they pass in and out, so like butterflies are they, with their brilliant and vari-coloured dresses, their glittering jewels, their air of sprightly and reckless extravagance. Gayest of the gay, the most dressy

of women, are the fashionable ladies of the American cities. You remark that in the midst of so much lavish ostentation decided taste in dress is displayed, rivalling the *grandes dames* of Paris itself; indeed, Paris is the fountain-head alike of New York dresses and of New York table fashions. Every New York lady of wealth has her French book of fashions, which is to her what the Peerage is to the British tuft-hunter, and the Imperial Code to the Parisian barrister; she boasts her French milliner, her French *dame de la mode*, her French cook, her French dancing-master for the children. French fashions seem to reach New York by ocean telegraph, so quickly do they appear there after they bloom in Paris.

The spacious squares and palatial mansions which you see up town have been mostly built by the successful merchants; they represent every trade and prosperous occupation. Comparatively few are inherited, for fortunes take wings and fly away in America almost as fast as they are built. You will find the owners to be lucky bankers and stock-brokers; large stuff-merchants and sugar-manufacturers; fortunate lawyers and fashionable doctors; enterprising editors and popular literati; traders in jewels and teas and Indian products; speculators in city lots and western lands; men who made sudden fortunes during the civil war by government contracts; purchasers of gold and silver mines and petroleum wells, which they have bought, then

sold again at the nick of time. Many, too, are the just reward of long years of patient and honest toil; an approach to wealth by slow and gradual steps; a constant resistance of the temptation to hazard hard-earned gains on the accidents of speculation. Every year these rich ostentatious streets and squares multiply and advance upon the sparsely settled quarters; for New York grows ever wealthier, and new enterprises, pushed by new men, spring up every day.

Many of the wealthy merchants and professional men in the American cities are "self-made." They owe their fortunes and positions to their own spirit and persevering toil. Not the less self-made are those who have worked their way through college amid the obstacles of poverty, and have begun the world strife as educated men; but most of the self-made men have not had even this advantage. Many a nabob with his thousands began at the lowest round of the social ladder; many a man eminent in letters and politics rose from the humblest occupations. A. T. Stewart, the richest New York citizen, whose annual income is upwards of three millions of dollars, commenced life as a poor pedagogue; John Jacob Astor, the father of the second wealthiest citizen, had an equally humble beginning; James Gordon Bennett and Horace Greeley, editors and proprietors of the two leading American newspapers, and now very rich men, began, the one as a schoolmaster in the south, the other as a press-roller and bill-sticker for a Vermont country newspaper;

Stephen A. Douglas and "Old Ben" Wade, both senators and prominent candidates for President, worked their way to the west from New England with but a few shillings in their pockets, laboured at hard drudgery for many years, and finally succeeded in becoming leaders of parties and legislators for the nation. Buchanan and Jackson were sons of Irish emigrants; Abraham Lincoln was a rail-splitter; Andrew Johnson a country tailor, whose wife taught him how to read; and Ulysses Grant a western tanner. In no country are there so many opportunities for the humble to rise. Family eminence is generally little considered. The pushing self-made man is perhaps most of all honoured, respected, and aided; and few there are who do not refer with pride to their early days of hardship and indomitable perseverance. There is no governing caste which frowns upon individual effort, and shuts out the descendant of emigrants and farmers from their pale. Let a man once succeed, and his past, however humble, is either forgotten, or recalled to render him the greater honour. Doubtless in some cases this makes men proud of their ignorance and coarseness—renders them arrogant; gives the unintelligent a too great influence. Yet the best American society, refined and even critical as it is, is far from encouraging the ignorant and arrogant man of wealth, who is apt to find himself set down in the catalogue of irredeemable snobs.

Probably society in the various American cities differs more widely than in those of any other country. Each

city and town has its peculiar social type. New York society—where commerce is the prevailing occupation, and all are wrapt up in the pursuit and the display of wealth—the social type is that of a brilliant, ostentatious, sprightly, pleasure-seeking kind. The New Yorkers are hospitable, lavish, emulous of the fashionable European world. To out-do one's neighbours, to have the most brilliant equipages, drawing-rooms, opera box, dinners, is the ambition of the wealthy matrons of Gotham. Nowhere in America will you find so unceasing a round of glittering gaiety and dissipation. The society is very accessible, yet very exacting. You may easily procure an entrance to its most gorgeous saloons—only you must be rich enough to keep pace with their frequenters. You are not asked who your ancestors were; it is hardly a recommendation that you are university-bred; but the more a man or woman of the world you are, the more *recherché* your manners, the more chatty and piquant your conversation, the purer the breed of the horses you drive in Central Park, the more faultless your toilet, the more fashionable your taste and criticism of pictures and operas, the more familiar you are with the social events and gossip of the hour, the more you will be welcome. Go into the down-town streets and counting-rooms, you might think yourself in the City of London on a specially busy day; enter the up-town drawing-rooms in the evening, and you may persuade yourself that you are in Paris. This double character of New York, its London-like passion

for business, its Parisian frenzy of gaiety and fashion, is very marked.

If you receive an invitation from one of the leaders of fashion, on the creamiest of paper, with the daintiest of monograms, and in the most fashionably chaste of handwritings, you will do ill not to go, for once at least, and witness the New York version of a Parisian *rout*. The invitation is for ten, but a kind friend whispers you that it means half-past. You array yourself much as you are wont to do in London, in broadcloth without a crease, white necktie without a wrinkle, gloves fresh from the shop, boots of the glossiest, hair emulative of "Hyperion's curls." You are wise to hire an elegant carriage from a fashionable stable, rather than an ordinary cab; and as you drive through the brilliantly lighted streets, you find yourself surrounded by many clattering vehicles, through whose windows you discern puffy masses of silk and satin, and fair heads graced with flowers and glistening with tiaras. You run up the broad steps, enter the dazzling hall—with its chandelier, its sculptures, its gilded cornicing. A spruce servant directs you up-stairs—two, three flights, where you at last, breathless, find a room where gentlemen are giving a final touch to their locks, and carefully disposing their cloaks and hats. You descend toward the drawing-rooms, jostled on the stairs by balloon-like dresses, now penned in by a midway conference of two or three dear female friends. Then seeing your chance and making headway through sudden

openings, your name is announced at the drawing-room door, and you are in the midst of the gay and bewildering scene. Madame receives you warmly, so does her husband and daughters; a little chat on the weather or the opera, and you "circulate." Here is New York society in epitome. If I am not mistaken, you will say to yourself that the ladies are remarkably pretty and sprightly, coquettish, graceful, possessing delicate figures, and many stately and handsome; but, accustomed as you are to the round physique and ruddy health of the English women, you will doubtless remark that the American ladies are somewhat frail and slight, with apparently little power of endurance—hardly fit for much physical exertion. Their conversation is quick and piquant; they are, perhaps, more like the French than the English. The dresses are extravagant, showy, various in material and colour; jewels flash everywhere; the hair is disposed in the latest fashionable extreme. As for the gentlemen, they are for the most part dressed in plain black; uniforms are rare. There are glossy-headed old nabobs with rubicund noses, bald foreheads, heavy white side whiskers, portly bodies, and great watch seals, types of prosperous sons of commerce; there are dapper little dandies, and ponderous big dandies, with the sprucest of hair and the most painfully proper of evening costumes; there are military men—these in uniform—whether regulars or militia, whether heroes of the Southern battle-fields or the neighbouring parade-

ground, we cannot easily tell; some modest and prone to the corners, others fierce in Napoleonic moustache or Grant close-cut beard, with glossy blue coats and brass buttons, heavy epaulets and ornate swords—irresistible to the ladies; there are a few foreign consuls and European lions, arrayed in all the pomp of gold-laced chapeaux, embroidered coats, and striped trousers—objects of curiosity to the republican aristocracy, which, though eschewing monarchical pomp, does not object to gaze upon it; there are congressmen in an alcove, talking politics; there are finally, sleek and languid men of the world, discussing the last race, or retailing one of those masculine scandals which are neither so senseless nor so harmless as those of the gentler sex. An orchestra in an alcove strikes up one of Strauss's waltzes or the lancers; each guest is provided with a gilt-printed *carte des dances*; and now the young men hasten from one lady to another, having brief but earnest conferences, and jotting down names upon their lists. American dancing is not so very different from the English—perhaps more sprightly, but less so than the French. There is a succession of waltzes, polkas, cotillons, lancers, mazurkas, galops; a “German” is started, and continues long enough to weary the patience of the non-participants. In the intervals between the dances, refreshments are passed about on dainty Sevres or Dresden services; lemonade, punch, wines, cakes. But the supper to which you are invited, towards one o'clock, is sumptuous. Every

viand and fruit, native and exotic, seasonable and out of season, American devices and European importations, are set before you; champagne is universally sought, and found to be plenteous; ice creams, and oysters in every variety are favourites; the older folk prefer the turtle soup, the boned turkey, or the salmon salad; the table is adorned with all the art of French professorship; there are rich bouquets for every guest; mayhap there are silver fountains gushing wine or shooting sprays of cool and refreshing perfumes. Then dancing is resumed—the Americans are passionately fond of it, especially the New York fashionables—and the older people retire to whist or euchre in the contiguous cabinets, while those young fellows who prefer it go upstairs to billiards. You do not get away before four or five in the morning; and although you find the excitement of one such *rout* quite enough for the week, you learn that the young ladies dissipate in a similar way almost nightly the winter long. As much as elsewhere, society in America is the opportunity of anxious mamas with disposable daughters. It is for them the great marriage mart. There are not wanting old “campaigners” of the sort made famous by Thackeray, who lay ambushes for unsuspecting youths; who have Gorgon frowns for ineligible, bland matronly smiles for prospective heirs. For them the season is a time of ambitious rivalry, a continuous siege. Money is lavished on the daughters; they are kept in a fever of dissipation; intrigues are set on foot to bring the

young people together ; flirtations are not looked on with an unkindly eye. Riches are the main object at which the maternal matchmaker aims. True, she will gladly secure, if possible, a foreign Count or a susceptible Senator, partly in lieu of fortune ; but she craves for her child the same golden luxury to which she herself is used. Wealth is the great social power in Gotham ; and many (though happily by no means all) fashionable ladies will ignore a famous name or ripe scholarship for the loaves and fishes.

Partly from a genuine love of hospitality, and partly from a craving for a new excitement, American society is fond of "lionizing" notabilities. Ovations to people in every department of eminence are frequent and popular. To fête a victorious general, an orator who has electrified the land by his eloquence, an embassy from China or Japan, the officers of a Russian squadron, a foreign prince or a man of letters—even a great railroad director or a merchant millionaire—is a favourite pleasure alike with the large cities and the smaller towns. To this end money is lavishly spent, preparations are elaborately made, and days given up to gala holidays. Such events were the visits, several years ago, of the Japanese embassy, and of the Prince of Wales while yet in his teens ; of the Russian fleet more recently ; the occasional journeys of the Presidents to various parts of the country ; the visits of Grant, Farragut, and other Union generals, to the north and west, after the war. These were invited to

balls and receptions; were taken on steamboat excursions; were serenaded, illuminated, and escorted in procession, to their hearts' content. Cyrus Field, on the completion of the Atlantic telegraph; Kossuth, when he came fresh from the Hungarian strife for freedom; Charles Dickens, on his second visit to America; George Peabody, on returning to his native country after a long residence abroad; Henry Clay, on retiring from the Senate; the heroes of the Pacific railroad were "ovated" and treated, and became each in his turn the subject of popular enthusiasm.

As much as New York society is noted for its extravagance, brilliancy, worship of wealth and fashion, is that of Boston known for its refined, intellectual, literary sphere; that of Philadelphia for its critical taste, and its liking for long pedigrees; that of Washington for its political and transient character; that of the western cities for its freedom, its unstinted sociability, and its unceremonious and hearty hospitality. Boston prides herself upon her poets, her professors, her literary women, her historians, her university-bred merchants, lawyers, and doctors, her intellectual clergy. Near by is Harvard University, the proudest and most aristocratic of American colleges; and Harvard has no small influence upon the tone of Boston society. Its professors are among the most eminent scholars and literati in the land, and are leaders in society as well as lecturers at the desk. Among them are Oliver Wendell Holmes, the "Autocrat of the Breakfast Table;" James

Russell Lowell ; Professors Agassiz, Wyman, and Child ; and Longfellow, formerly himself a professor, is still resident at Cambridge, and one of the honoured university coterie. These, with such alumni of Harvard as Ralph Waldo Emerson, George S. Hillard, Charles Sumner, Charles Francis Adams, John Lothrop Motley, and George Ticknor, all of whom reside in or near Boston, are the social as well as the intellectual heads of the society of the New England capital. A literary man, a university graduate, is more cordially received in Boston society than the young man of "expectations," or the wealthy man of the world. The young ladies are well educated, excellent talkers, often accomplished linguists and students of abstruse sciences. "Blue ladies" are in their most congenial sphere at Boston ; here they may deliver Sunday lectures, discuss the Alabama claims or woman suffrage in the reviews and papers, and read poems at anniversaries, without running so much danger as elsewhere of ridicule. The merchants of Boston, amid commercial cares, are prone to post themselves on religious, political, and moral questions ; the learned professions are, perhaps, more highly regarded than in any other American town. Side by side, in Boston, with this literary refinement and sphere, you observe that peculiar trait strikingly developed, which is sometimes called "Yankee smartness"—a keen, sharp taste for making bargains ; a shrewd farseeing business cunning ; a dry crisp humour accompanying this propensity. It is especially the *Yankee* capital. "Yankee" is a

term used by the rest of the nation to define New Englanders, and particularly those New Englanders who are keen and "'cute." I have heard it pronounced in England, "Yan-kee;" the Americans say, short, "Yanky." The Confederate soldiers used to delight to call their Union opponents, "the Yanks." Boston is fond of literary reunions and "sociables;" of lectures and intellectual tea-parties; of conventions and political meetings; of religious and philosophical discussion; of learned societies and libraries.

The society of Philadelphia—city of Penn and the Quakers, of Franklin and the revolutionary patriots, of the first Congress and the "republican court" of Washington—is staid, orderly, aristocratic. The town is built in painfully rectangular streets and squares, which, however, are clean, well shaded, and homelike. There are many Quakers; and to be a descendent of the older Quaker families is to command a high position in the social circles. The Philadelphians are fond of the arts—patronise the painters and prima donnas, the sculptors and histrionic artists. They are refined, less formal perhaps than the New Englanders, more so than the free-hearted people of the West. A large number of the citizens are of Dutch or German parentage or descent, and many of the most frequently mentioned names betray a Teutonic origin.

In the West, the European who has been used to the ceremonies and formalities of the old-world society, is, very likely, shocked at the familiarity, the

help-yourself and make-yourself-at-home air of the people. Total strangers talk to you on the railways, and are as intimate with you in an hour as if they had long been your most confidential friends. At the hotel tables your right hand neighbour vies with him on your left in a race to gain your confidence. You receive an unwonted number of invitations to tea or into the country, from persons whom you never saw before, and of whose names and social standing you haven't the least conception. You have only to travel in a sleeping-car with many a free-going Westerner, to to be accosted next morning by your Christian name, which he discovers before you know it. For all his familiarity, however, unless you are a confirmed cynic and inveterately distrustful of humanity, you will soon find out that he is an open-hearted, generous, hospitable fellow, not seldom concealing beneath his brusque *bonhomie* a clear head, bright sense and humour, and well-read intelligence. His failings, if failings they are, are kindly. This free familiar trait of the Westerner is readily accounted for. In the days when the West was but sparsely settled—when there were but a few log huts scattered here and there, and, at rare intervals, a little log village—it was a social necessity to the settlers to seize every possible occasion to talk to whomsoever they met. They lived the free careless life of the back woods; the rare traveller was always welcome to the solitary hewer of wood and cultivator of virgin fields. From this yearning to see and commune with their

kind, there grew up the habit of unceremonious familiarity with all the world; everybody talked to everybody else, as if they were old friends, whether they had ever seen each other before or not. Thus, what was originally a necessity—an incident of back woods life, became the genial custom of the country. The free-and-easy way of the Westerner may be sometimes annoying, but if you will only enter into the spirit of the people there, put aside your formal notions of etiquette, you will not fail to make many warm and worthy friends, whose generosity, free hospitality, cordiality, will have a not trifling value, and be a pleasant reminiscence.

The Southerner—like the dwellers in hot and luxuriant climes everywhere—is indolent, generous, fiery tempered, proud, sentimental, careless. In the Southern cities, before the war—all Southern society is now changing and putting on new phases—pleasures in which too much physical exertion was not demanded, were most in vogue. Unenterprising, not so fond of hoarding money as the Northerner, often an extensive landed proprietor, the best type of the Southern gentleman loved to fill his house with guests, whom he entertained by balls, music, water excursions, negro performances, and a plentiful table. Southern society was exclusive; the slave aristocracy was the haughtiest of all American classes.* The owner of vast cotton and sugar plantations was the social leader as well as the political autocrat. Life in the South was romantic and indolent and drowsy; it was like the luxurious lazy

life depicted in Thomson's "Castle of Indolence." Prolific nature showered upon the Southerner unstinted bounties of fruit and vegetable products; he lived in lordly ease in his great house with its verandahs and hammocks and wide-open windows, while his troops of slaves toiled with little vigour under the hot broiling sun, in the wide expanse of his plantation. Passing through the streets of a Southern city on a summer's evening, you would see all the inhabitants, rich and poor, white and black, seated on their doorsteps or on the pavements before their houses, catching the soft cool breeze which came up from the sea after the oppressive heats of the long Southern day.

It is impossible for an American, even when writing an account of the social features of his own country for readers of another nation, not to note one very creditable custom which prevails everywhere in the United States, and which is perhaps more conspicuous there than in most European countries. This is the universal deference and respect in which women are held. Every American admits, by his bearing towards the gentler sex, that she is socially the superior of man. Wherever you go, you will see the foremost place given up to the ladies. If a lady enters a horse-car, the seats of which are full, two or three gentlemen will at once rise and offer her their places, and stand during the rest of their journey. In the railway trains she is provided with the best carriages, is under the peculiar care of the conductor, and has every attention paid her by

strangers as by friends. On all public occasions—when a procession passes through the streets, at the dedication of statues or edifices, in the galleries of Congress, at concerts, even in political meetings, she has the front seat on the balcony or at the window, the best and nearest galleries, the most convenient part of the platforms. The politeness to women is less demonstrative, more practically earnest, than that of the French. On the side-walk, the inside is invariably yielded to the ladies; even in the little trifle of beginning the popular games—the first move in chess, or throw in backgammon, or stroke at croquet, is conceded to the ladies as a matter of course. No one will commence dinner until the ladies of the house are seated; at the public tables every one waits until the ladies have swept down in the elaborate toilets which often keep hungry masculine souls waiting. Women, old and young, rich and poor, walk the streets by day or night in safety, with champions to protect them from rudeness or insult, on every hand. They travel alone thousands of miles—pretty young damsels as well as shrivelled matrons in spectacles—perfectly at ease, everybody around them anxious to make their journey comfortable, to assist in looking after luggage and calling cabs, to keep watch for the right station, and ever at their nod. The laws and judges are especially severe upon those who ill-treat women. The social dignity of the sex is one of the essential features of American civilisation. This real and earnest deference is found as well in the

brusque Westerner living on the confines of the vast plains and forests, and in the staid puritanic New Englander, as in the chivalrous Southerner or the lady-loving New York man of society. Wherever women go, they are protected and watched over: a cruel or unfaithful husband is a marked man. The best places are always found "reserved for the ladies." Whether they attend a trial at court, or are curious to hear political harangues, or to listen to Congressional debates, they are never, never can be anywhere in America, intruders. There is a delicacy toward the sex which will, in kindly eyes, atone for many of the social shortcomings which the old-world man of society thinks he discovers in the American character.

Clubs—those indispensable resorts to the London man of the world—are in America few and far between. It is only in the larger cities and towns that you will find them. Perhaps the custom of having clubs is growing, for there are many more now than there were before the war.

During that struggle, an association, devoted to keeping up the enthusiasm of the war-spirit in the north, called the Union League, was formed throughout the country; and the leaders of this league had the idea to establish clubs in the principal cities, which should be its head-quarters, where its members might meet and consult, and the league meetings and festivals be held. The result was that noble edifices were erected to this end; the Union League clubs multiplied

and became very popular; they were the centres of the active and practical patriotic spirit; and President Grant, on his accession to the White House, testified his appreciation of the value of the services with which the Union League clubs aided at home his military success in the field, by choosing the President of the Philadelphia club as his Secretary of the Navy, and the President of the New York club as envoy to the court of Vienna. The Union League club houses in New York, Philadelphia, Chicago, and Boston, were, and are, sumptuous affairs, fitted up with rare luxury and magnificence; supplied with all the comforts of spacious reading-rooms and news-bulletins, billiard and card saloons, smoking-rooms, and restaurants, replete with capital wines, choice viands, and artistic cookery. The example thus set has been to some extent followed; but the experiment seems to have proved that clubs are not entirely congenial to American tastes. The extraordinary activity which has been infused of late into the "woman's rights" movement in America, by the exertions of a few radical statesmen and men of letters, and a coterie of remarkably able and energetic ladies, has resulted in the formation of a female club, which has been christened by the curious name of "the Sorosis." It is apparently flourishing; frequent meetings are held, at which precocious young women with short hair and bright eyes, elderly matrons in spectacles and severe costumes, eloquent ladies of fashion, and authoresses, indulge in spicy debates on

the great subject which forms their bond of sympathy and union. Occasionally we hear of "Sorosis" dinners at Delmonico's (the fashionable New York restaurant), where "man" is toasted with a tinge of irony, coloured orators declaim against the brutalities of the sterner sex, and there are piquant running dialogues between the more bellicose of the fair members of the Sorosis. There are, of course, in the cities, literary and political clubs, but these seldom unite with their immediate purpose the sensual comforts of dining-rooms and restaurants, or the more frivolous accompaniments of billiards and card tables. Associations of all sorts are perhaps more numerous than in England; but purely social clubs are few, and seemingly not destined to be popular.

Covent Garden itself is not more interesting than some of the American markets. They betray the garden and agricultural resources of a country; and the variety of American products affords a showy exhibition to the markets. Fulton Market in New York, Quincy Market in Boston, and the long curious markets of Philadelphia, Baltimore, and Washington—some of which are low wooden buildings running some distance through the middle of wide streets—will afford to English eyes a good idea of the fruits, flowers, vegetables, meats, and comestibles which American farms yield to the delectation of the city populations. The stalls are not unlike those of Covent Garden; but the market people are decidedly more anxious to sell, and announce their wares and their prices in loud voices as *Paterfamilias*

wanders through the aisles laden with his huge provision basket. You will observe that much taste is used in disposing attractively the various products. The fruit is deftly piled in pyramids, the grapes are festooned in fantastic clusters. Early in the morning the farmers' wagons may be seen wending their way from every direction to the market; these are backed up to the pavement, and their contents unloaded carefully and rapidly. America is rich in vegetables and fruits; in the season you see potatoes, Irish and sweet, tomatoes in great abundance, melons of half-a-dozen kinds, grapes—green, red, white, and purple—peaches, with their deep pink bloom, cherries, berries of every kind, rich yellow pears of every size, apples of every hue and taste, marrows and pumpkins, Indian corn and the "oyster plant," pineapples, bananas, and oranges. Fulton Market, in New York, is a great oyster mart, to which thousands of bushels are brought every day, and where you may partake of them on the spot, or order your supply for the family dinner, as you please. There are fishes of all sorts, shell-fish, lobsters, crabs; but no shrimps nor white bait. The markets are full of life and busy trade; a much more bustling scene than Covent Garden at its busiest.

The Englishman whose mirror warns him that the razor has become a necessity, and yet who is not skilled in wielding it himself, finds the barber's shop a resort of but indifferent comfort. He is forced to sit bolt upright in a stiff-backed chair, with no rest for the

head; and during the operation his neck is strained, his face becomes parallel with the horizon, from which position, at the end, he recovers himself with a painful "stitch." He has next to hurry to the basin, and cleanse his face, the barber standing idly by. In America he would find the process of shaving a far more comfortable one. The American barber's "saloon" is a luxurious apartment, handsomely furnished, adorned with fancy prints, supplied with the newspapers, and having all the necessary appliances for the toilet; a glass-case in one corner exhibiting bottles of every perfume, hair-restorer, and whisker-compeller, known to fame, or concocted by the proprietor himself. He is invited to recline in a spacious, soft-cushioned chair, which swings back until it reaches exactly the comfortable angle; there he rests with perfect comfort until the operation is achieved. The barber performs the ablutions after the shaving is over; powders the chin; and one rises from the chair to find himself as spruce and neat as possible.

The use of liveries and heraldic devices is rare in America, and when a family adopts them, they are looked upon as snobbish, and as imitators of a foreign aristocracy. The custom seems, however, to be increasing; for many families, suddenly enriched by the civil war and by speculation, and desirous of seeming thoroughly "aristocratic," foolishly think that mere external symbols will stamp them as such, and forthwith

bedeck John the coachman and Timothy the footman in gorgeous scarlet or yellow, and emblazon family arms on the panels of their carriages. This custom is advancing to such an extent, that it has been proposed to lay a tax upon these symbols. It is regarded by substantial people, and what may be called the true American aristocracy (that of intelligence), as an indication of snobbery and coarseness; for the people who adopt it have usually no real grounds, excepting wealth, for setting themselves up as the leaders of society.

The European model is sometimes varied by American imitators, by substituting for the scented and powdered footman with bulging calves, a fine "darkey" specimen imported from the South, or a "live" little Chinaman, wandered hither from the Orient, and clothed in all the glory of a wash-bowl hat, gaudy loose-hanging garments of many colours, turned up shoes, and long braided tails of hair hanging down his back.

The American fire-companies and firemen are well organised, and do effective service. The companies are made up of volunteers; the houses and engines are supplied by the cities; and the members feel a keen interest and pride in their humane task. There is a spirited emulation to see which company will reach the fire first; and this is not only in the hope of getting the reward offered to the first comers, but arises from a sincere *esprit de corps*. Electric fire alarms extend

everywhere through the cities : and latterly the engines have been driven by steam, which is found to be a substantial gain. When there is a fire, you may see the engines clattering along the streets, their pipes puffing steam, and the men, in red shirts, wearing peculiar hats with wide leather rims bent down behind and up before, their trousers stuffed in their boots, hastening excitedly and noisily after. Fires are more frequent in American than in English towns—partly, doubtless, because many of the buildings are wood ; but a large majority are extinguished by the zeal of the firemen, who are bold in braving the dangers of the element, and often perform acts of veritable heroism in saving people from the burning houses. The boys of the more humble classes have an ambition to help “run the machine ;” and are proud of the day when they have grown large enough to take their places at the ropes, to work the engines up and down with their quick creak and thud, and to rush up the long, slight ladders to the windows, whence the smoke is puffing in great fitful clouds. The firemen are in many towns supplied, either by the city or by private subscriptions, with libraries, reading-rooms, and lectures ; and it is a *sine quâ non* with the fire companies to have at least one merry ball every winter ; while in summer picnics and steamboat excursions are frequently given by the members. The firemen parade with the military on every public occasion, accompanied by their engines and other

paraphernalia,—and with their unique uniforms, and highly ornamented and brightly burnished machines, make a really fine display ; they have, too, gala days of their own, on which all the companies meet, and go in procession, escorted by brass bands, through the streets.

CHAPTER XX.

HOTELS. *American love of travelling—The hotels—Drawing-rooms, kitchens—The table—Servants—Negro waiters and cooks—Country hotels—Station hotels—Wines—Restaurants—Boarding-houses—The cost of living in America.*

THE Americans are essentially a travelling, circulating people. Everybody travels, and likes to travel. In what eager multitudes do they brave the dangers and, fully as formidable, the throes of seasickness of the Atlantic voyage, that they may see with their own eyes the wonders of the old world—of which they have read with such intense interest, and which to them seem as romantic and dreamlike as the visions of the Thousand and One Nights! It is quite impossible for the European to comprehend the feeling with which the American first visits the scenes hallowed by tradition, the monuments which speak of the remoter ages. America has little history; there are men yet living who can recall the days when the Republic was born. Everything is new—the country, the houses, the temples, the laws. Accustomed only to that which is recent; yet imaginative, and having his mind stored with legends of European history, with the descriptions of the novel-

ist, the poet, and the historian, the American longs to find himself wandering through the suggestive thoroughfares of London — telling us of King John and his Barons, of Henry VIII. and his wives, of Smithfield and its fires, of Prince Hal and his boisterous cronies, of Cromwell and his “Ironsides,” of Rochester and his sad pranks, of Addison and “Brooks’s,” of dear old America-hating Johnson and the Mitre, of the Prince Regent and the Carlton House. He is impatient to see Paris with its rare old memories and its modern splendour; to steam up the castle-capped Rhine; to sit among the broken columns of the Forum; to wander through the silent, speaking streets of sad Pompeii. These are new, strange, awe-inspiring to him beyond European imagining. Americans come, then, by the thousand, yearly; they are now as ubiquitous as the traditional British shopkeeper himself! Paterfamilias, deep in his ledger, is possibly somewhat loth; but mother and the girls are frantic, and will not be appeased.

The Americans not only come abroad in troupes; they are indefatigable travellers at home. Curiosity is a great national trait. To “see things,” and what they look like and how they work, is a passion. Your Yankee is anxious to see every nook and corner of “our great country, sir.” To stand under the deafening cataract of Niagara, to grope, torch-bearing, through the vast damp Mammoth cave, to look down and be dizzy from the Natural Bridge, to rollic over the prairies, to slip through the mountain snows, to steam down the

Mississippi, to swing into the dark deep mines, to hasten from one busy city to another, is often his delight. Business, too, calls on him, inexorably, to circulate. Tompkins must sell off his goods to the country customers; his clerks are sent out with samples, and scatter to the four points of the compass. Jobson is a railway superintendent; he wanders ceaselessly up and down the lines. The Honourable Nehemiah Spouter is seeking a reelection; he hastens hither and thither, stopping ever and anon to make eloquent appeals to his "noble constituents." Farmers are carrying their products to distant markets; men are off for the West and South in the cause of trade, or to settle there; people are flocking to summer resorts or winter centres of fashion; reporters are running a race to reach some celebration, and to send news of it back first; office-seekers, stuffed with "recommendations," are crowded thick into the train for Washington, and scowl at each other from a too close proximity.

For such an amount of travel there must be plenty of hotels, and those good ones. American enterprise is perhaps in nothing more strikingly exhibited than in the establishing of hotels, and the competition which exists among mine hosts. The very slang of the street hints this to us. It is said of a man whose cleverness in any respect is doubted, "he can't keep a hotel." Indeed, to keep a hotel successfully in America—so exacting are the guests—requires no common talents of a certain sort. American hotels are in many

respects different from those found in Europe. They are peculiarly adapted to the people, but perhaps they are not so to him who has been accustomed to the hotels of Paris and London. In some respects, indeed, he would find them an improvement. It is a perpetual annoyance to the American abroad, that at every step he is called on to fee the servants. He sees in his bill a charge for "service," varying from a shilling to two shillings a day: this is foreign to his home experience, but he has heard of it, and pays it without murmuring, yielding to the custom of the country, and glad to be rid of it. He descends to depart; when, lo, on the staircase chambermaid confronts him, and hints that "a little something" would be agreeable; bootblack appears further on; then waiter, spruce and stiff, with itching palm; next, porter, bowing about and tipping his hat. There is none of this in America. You pay so much a day—say four or five dollars—and you are quit of room, board, service, everything. The servants do not throw themselves in your way as you leave; they rarely expect a *pour boire*; the landlord counts on including in the fixed price every possible charge.

Every American city boasts its spacious, luxurious, liberally-managed hotels. Those of New York are naturally the largest and best. At frequent intervals, in Broadway, and in the up-town squares and avenues, you will come upon vast square edifices, many richly adorned; some of brick, others of sandstone, others of

white marble, rising seven or eight stories from the street, oftener on corners, and not seldom taking up an entire square. Before the door are bustling groups of gentlemen, smoking and chatting, or hastening in and out. The "Fifth Avenue," the "Metropolitan," the "St. Nicholas," the "International," the "Brevoort," and the "Astor House," are perhaps the best in the metropolis. The Fifth Avenue is an immense square edifice of glistening white marble, situated in the midst of the most fashionable quarter, overlooking the tranquilly aristocratic Madison Square; it strikes the stranger as one of the most imposing edifices of the town. Entering, you will find yourself in a vast, high vestibule, adorned with pillars, and from which wide staircases ascend to the upper stories. The greater portion of this hall is an open space, where groups of people are talking, welcoming each other, or bidding adieus. Doors on either side lead into rooms devoted to various purposes: one conducts you to the hotel barber's saloon, fitted with every elegance and luxury; another leads to the bar-room, where you may have any wine or liquor or American concoction—soda-water or lemonade if you are temperately inclined—and choice Havana cigars at startling prices; a third door introduces you to the reading room, a long apartment, where there are many rows of slanting boards, or stands, level with your face, where are fastenêd all the principal newspapers of Europe and America; where you may read the leaders in the last London *Times*

received by steamer, or the *Shipping Gazette*, as well as the *Berlin Zeitung*, the *Paris Journal des Debats*, the *Illinois Gazette*, or the *Texas Democrat*. Here are tables supplied with paper, envelopes, blotter, pen and ink, where you may write at leisure; here too, along the walls, are advertisements of steamers, hatters, clothing stores, and whatnot, fancifully framed, with, perhaps, portraits of General Washington or Grant above. A spacious closet leading from the vestibule discloses luxurious appliances for the toilet: a long row of marble washbasins, with taps; large mirrors; numerous brushes, combs, and towels; hooks for hats and cloaks. At the further end of the vestibule itself are long marble or elegantly carved desks, behind which are clerks in broadcloth, with an elaborate toilet and an excess of jewelry, mostly polite, sometimes rather pompous and short; the desk is supplied with extensive post-office boxes, which you may obtain at goodly prices for the depositing of your mails; and before you is a huge register, where, as soon as you arrive, you are requested to enter your name and residence, opposite to which the number of your room is set. Behind the desks are unique contrivances for summoning the servants, and there is a board with hooks for the keys. You will find in the larger daily papers lists of the arrivals at the hotels: if you are a notability, you are honoured by a special paragraph among the "personals."

Ascending to your room behind the porter, who is

with difficulty struggling up under the burden of your luggage, you are apt to find yourself near the roof; for the hotel is always full, and, as the clerk tells you, only those who engage their rooms beforehand are likely to get a place within a reasonable distance from the street. There are, you are told, some five or six hundred rooms, many of them luxurious suites, composed of parlour, chamber, and dressing room. Domestic comforts you discover in the bath, hot water and cold, and closet conveniences. Water supplies on every floor, with pipe and hose attached, apprise you that provision is made to protect the guests from fire; "any room in the building can be flooded in five minutes," says waiter officiously. The spacious corridors through which you pass are beautifully frescoed and painted; the carpets yield soft as a lawn beneath your feet. At one side of the vestibule you observe the ponderous "elevator," which conveys the guests in a sort of balloon-like fashion from the first story to the very roof—a marvellous and costly piece of mechanism, without which no modern hotel proprietor would dare to build. The hotels are all alight with gas at night. In a new hotel in Boston, they tell us, there are some two miles of gas pipes running zigzag through the house, and sixteen miles of bell wire, thousandfold plague of the servants. Your room is neatly, simply furnished. The bedstead stands square on the floor; is not stilted and high, like those of Britain, neither does it have canopies or curtains supported by lofty posts; the linen is, however, of the

finest, the feathers of the softest, and therein lies its comfort. A pretty carpet, plain window curtains, *very* green blinds, a marble top washstand, a closet for clothes, an elegant mirror,—these are the garnishments.

There are hardly less than a thousand guests under the same roof with you ; these are every one well cared for, promptly served. A feature to which you are not used in the old countries, is the *drawing-rooms* of the American hotels. On the second floor you discover a long, spacious suite of apartments, furnished as lavishly as Devonshire House, with great luxurious sofas and fauteuils, high and numerous mirrors, paintings, gilded cornicings, rich carpets—these are the public hotel parlours. There are parlours for the gentlemen and for the ladies, where the guests of the house are free to sit the day long, receive their visitors, and assemble *en grande toilette* in the evening. No extra charge is made for the use of these elegant saloons. Often they are used for balls and parties, concerts and private theatricals. The scene which they afford in the evening—dazzlingly lighted by large glass chandeliers—is very brilliant. The ladies are there, arrayed in all their glory ; a “parlour grand” is yielding a brisk galop or a Beethoven sonata in the corner ; old gentlemen are struggling through the evening papers at the polished mahogany tables ; here a little group are laughing and joking ; there a young couple are whispering tender asides, watchful of the rest lest they should be noticed.

Should you venture to wander through those mysterious labyrinths which lead from the upper world to the hot regions where the French master cook wins his triumphs, the kitchen of Christ Church, at Oxford, will no longer seem wonderful. Imagine a newly invented cooking range which is fifty feet long, entirely covers one side of the kitchen, and not only supplies the vast establishment with plenteous hot water, but at the same time cooks the dinners of a thousand hungry guests! Here are cooks by the dozen; the daily supply of meat rises in lordly piles on the broad kitchen tables; there are heaped baskets of vegetables, cooked by the bushel; there are luscious pyramids of fruits, and a row of fellows in white paper caps beating up sauces and moulding pastry into a score of forms.

In the dining and breakfast rooms the Englishman finds some of the most striking differences from the establishments of his own land. Here, besides numberless small tables, capable of seating from two to half-a-dozen, are long tables extending in parallel rows completely across the spacious hall. Each will accommodate a hundred guests or more; and the people all sit democratically at table together. From a neat card which you find tacked to the door of your bedroom you learn that you may have breakfast at any time from six A.M. till noon; dinner from noon till six P.M.; tea or supper from six P.M. till midnight. Descending between any of these hours, you find the guests

scattered along the common table, leisurely eating, drinking, talking, or reading the papers. The hotel charges you so much a day, as has been remarked, which includes everything; at the fashionable first-class hotels the charge is four and a half or five dollars (18s. 6d. to 1l.)—this entitles you to room, lights, service, and your meals. When you are seated at the breakfast-table, a waiter promptly brings you a bewilderingly long and miscellaneous bill of fare, from which you choose, as the French say, *à discretion*. You may have what you like, and as much as you like; there is no limit. The beverages are tea, coffee, cocoa, or milk; you may have a beefsteak, a mutton-chop, a plate of “fish-balls,” ham and eggs, sausages, fowl, oysters raw or cooked in all fashions, eggs, veal cutlets, pig’s feet, and many more meat dishes, and may have them all in succession if you choose to order them; hot rolls, cakes of a dozen sorts—buckwheat, or rice, or griddle, or corn—fried potatoes or “chips”—compose the other dishes from which you may choose. At dinner the same abundance is offered for your orders. The favourite dinner hours in the hotels are at two for men of business and departing travellers, and at six for the fashionables and stationary guests. I doubt if the English visitor will find at any house of public entertainment in Europe a more sumptuous feast than is daily offered to the guests of the Fifth Avenue in New York, the Continental in Philadelphia, or the St. James in Boston. Many of the hotel pro-

prietors themselves own extensive farms, gardens, conservatories, and dairies in the neighbourhood of the cities; and with the abundance of fruit and vegetables which America yields, and which may be brought to the cities from all parts in a few hours, it is not strange that such repasts should be enjoyed in the large hotels. In the summer season, especially, the guests may regale themselves according to the widest variety of taste. Of vegetables there is a perplexing variety; game—especially venison, partridges, quails, “canvass-back” and other species of ducks, prairie hens, and grouse, are plenty, cheap, and well prepared for the table. Cookery is very various in American as in English or French hotels; most of the larger American hotels have French head-cooks. The American landlords are very enterprising, are especially careful in their *cuisine*, and easily adopt foreign customs and inventions in the art of cookery.

The chambermaids of the hotels are, as I have said, almost invariably buxom Irish girls. The waiters at table also are mostly Irish. As you go southward, you will find it fashionable to have *negro* waiters. The “darkey,” with his ludicrous pomposity, his quick instinct, his ostentatious cleanliness, is the best of possible waiters. He divines your wants in a moment; he is painfully neat in his apparel; he never upsets a plate, or blunders in fulfilling your order. He is fond of being praised, and, if you do not treat him too contemptuously, he will take great pains to please you.

It is an amusing sight to see, in one of the large Philadelphia or Baltimore hotels, the rows of these sleek and stiff-backed negroes, arrayed in black broad-cloth, with white neckties standing out starch, their woolly hair rolled in a unique pyramid on the top of the head, and projecting triangular over each ear, with solemnly staid countenances, from whose sable surface shine out two dazzling white spots, their eyes and their much-prized pearly teeth. With what military precision does your darkey waiter deposit the dishes, with what a stately bend of the form does he stoop to hear your commands! In the southern hotels, too, negro cooks have no rivals; they are, beyond comparison, the best cooks in America, especially of the "Johnny cakes," "hoe cakes," "hominy," "corn pones," which are peculiar to the south, and are favourite dishes. The typical negro cook is a tall, rotund, matronly, neatly dressed woman, some fifty or sixty years of age; her woolly head wrapt in a gaudily-coloured handkerchief disposed like a turban, whom everybody calls "mammy" or "aunty;" who is a perfect despot on her culinary domain, and is as independent and "set" as it is possible for mortal to be; who talks to her mistress with a familiarity all motherly, and is a famous friend—loved, and not the less dreaded—of the children.

While the hotels in the cities are built of brick or stone, those of the smaller towns and in the rural districts are mostly substantial wooden buildings, often with porticos and verandahs, two or three stories high.

The prices in these are of course not so dear. In some country towns one may have excellent accommodation for a dollar and a half a day. It is a custom in many of the rural hotels for the landlord and his family to occupy seats at the common table, and mingle in the conversation with the guests. The village landlord is, indeed, one of the rustic aristocracy. He is not unlikely one of the foremost of the village politicians: he makes verbose speeches, is elected on the town committee, is perhaps sent to represent the village in the State legislature. The hotel is the emporium of news; there the village oracles flock to read their papers, discuss the affairs of the nation, and compare notes on the prospect of the crops. The landlord is often also the postmaster; a little box at one corner of his office serves for the slender mail which arrives by the stage coach once a-day from the nearest town. The farmers, driving in from their domains with their loads of hay or potatoes, "hitch up" under the long sheds which stand by the tavern, go into the primitive bar-room with its carpetless well-sanded floor and modest bar, indulge in a glass of grog and a clay pipe before proceeding to their business. The landlord's wife is not seldom the oracle of the village gossip. She confirms or rejects the rumour of the hour. She knows whether Tom Brown is going to marry Susan Smith; she tells you all about the fancy gentleman who has mysteriously arrived at the hotel; she knows exactly the price which Farmer Johnson got for his last load of hay. Better

still, she puts before you a good, honest country meal, well though plainly cooked, and plenty of it.

In many of the rustic taverns there are bright-eyed, brisk, native damsels waiting at table, the daughters of contiguous farmers, who think it no disgrace to "hire out," are on a perfect equality with guest and host, and can sing songs in the parlour in the evening, as well as help you to your roast beef and potatoes at dinner-time. Near all the railway stations where the trains stop for "twenty minutes' refreshment," there are hotels, where it is made a point to have dinner or supper in readiness for the travellers when they arrive. The passengers rush in, an eager multitude, precipitate themselves upon the chairs, and, amid amusing confusion, hasten to finish their repast. They are in constant expectation of hearing the monitory clang of the engine-bell, and are nervously mistrustful of the waiter's assurance that "There's lots of time, sir." The soup goes scalding down the hungry throats; there are loud and persistent calls for "Wai—ter!" on every side. Imprecations fall on the heads of the servants, and "Where's that beef?" "When is that pudding coming?" await them every time they rush plate-laden up and down the table.

Many of the American hotels in the cities are carried on by what is called the "European" system; that is, they let rooms, and have restaurants apart; so that you pay so much for your room, and then take your meals *à la carte*, paying only for what you have. They

charge, perhaps, a dollar and a half a day for a bedroom, and this price includes service, baths, use of drawing-rooms, and other conveniences. You may take your meals in the hotel restaurant or not, at discretion; if you do, a bill of fare, with the price of each dish marked, is presented to you, and you can make up a meal according to your purse or inclination.

In some of the hotels, where a lump price is paid for both board and room, there are also restaurants, so that you can choose for yourself whether to live on the American or the European plan. The latter is the most popular with the foreigners who visit the United States; Europeans are seldom fond of dining in crowds, they prefer to have a table to themselves.

Wines are, of course, not included in the bills of fare at the hotels; and the Englishman who is accustomed to his daily bottle of fine old crusted port, or the Frenchman who cannot exist without his Cham-bertin or Château Margaux, finds it difficult to procure his favourite beverage; for good wine is rare, and even poor wine is, compared with European prices, exceedingly dear. The native "Catawba" and wild grape wines are perhaps the cheapest and best; and if one can only persuade himself that the California "hock" and "sparkling Catawba" are pure and genuine beverages, he will surely enjoy them. • If, indeed, you prefer the grosser whisky, you may get it very nice at the principal hotels; but the beer is mostly poor, unless you procure some veritable lager, brewed by a Ger-

man enthusiast who has transferred his art to the new world.

Restaurants there are of all sorts and degrees. New York is hardly less cosmopolitan than Paris in providing eating-saloons for people of all nations. There you will find German restaurants where you may obtain *sauer kraut* and pretzels, lager beer, and vegetable messes; French restaurants, with frogs and *champignons*, *vol au vent financière*, and fricandeau *à la sauce tomate*; English restaurants, with roast beef and Yorkshire pudding, beer, and ancient cheese; even Russian, Spanish, Italian restaurants. There are restaurants like Simpson's, where you must pay high prices, but are served in style; restaurants like those of Cheap-side, which are noted for the excellence of special dishes, and where you will find the business men; and cheap restaurants, where may be obtained indifferent meals at small charges, and whither the poorly-off are fain to flock. But you never fee the waiters anywhere; and you hardly ever see people eating cheese and bread after the substantial part of the meal is over—that is a purely European custom.

I have already said that there are no lodging-houses, as understood in England; and that boarding-houses are mainly the resort of single folk, or of married folk who are temporarily harboured in them while casting about for a domestic haven. The American boarding-house is, however, a characteristic institution. It is a little world in itself. Not more

ludicrously illustrative of certain phases of British character is the famous boarding-house described by Dickens in *Martin Chuzzlewit*, than is the American boarding-house of certain native traits. There are boarding-houses everywhere—in cities and villages, in quarters aristocratic and quarters squalid. There is every degree of price, from fifty dollars a week to three. There are “highly respectable” boarding-houses, kept by widows of clergymen and lawyers in distress, where the lady of the house refers you for the —hem, the terms, to the head chambermaid, and where the “guests” must make their complaints through the same subordinate medium. Madame appears at table in a fashionable toilet, comes in late, and is never outwardly seen to take any steps in the management of her house. Patrick, the waiter, does the carving, and madame helps to the roast beef as if she were Juno dispensing ambrosia to the lesser gods. All is quiet and highly respectable—not to say gloomy and cheerless—in the house. It is a temple of gossip, but the gossipers murmur low, and talk scandal with dignity and solemn faces. Then there are boarding-houses for bank and shop clerks, boarding-houses where none but staid old bachelors are “taken in,” boarding-houses which afford a home for shabby-genteel families, boarding-houses—descending to the lower social strata—for mechanics and labourers, for emigrants and the desperately poor.

They are, after all, more sociable and enjoyable

than the English lodging-houses. In the latter, the lodgers live by themselves, and may never even see each other from one year's end to the other. In the boarding-house, unless you are irredeemably shy and reserved, you must make acquaintances, and get to know everybody. You meet the people at the table, you pass them on the stairs, you sit with them in the parlour—for the boarding-houses usually have a common parlour—you are invited to their rooms for a smoke or a rubber at whist.

In the country towns and villages, many of the good folk—even those in the best society—take boarders during the summer months, and provide really comfortable and home-like sojourning places. Boarding in the country is very cheap; one may live well, by the side of pretty lakes or picturesque rivers, in many parts of the country, for three or four dollars a week. Families who desire to enjoy the green fields and rural landscapes in the summer, and are not wealthy enough to have their own country seats, frequently shut up their city houses, and take board in the way I have described. They find a place where they may associate on equal terms with their hosts and their neighbours; where the daughters play the piano and sing, and the boys are at the academy or college; where they may do a little amateur dabbling in garden work, play croquet the day long on the little lawn before the house, and use the horse and carriage of the host as much and often as they like.

The cost of living in America before the civil war was less than in England ; since that event prices have risen at least one-third. The heavy taxes, the depreciation of the paper money, the general exhaustion of the country, have naturally produced this result. The expense is now probably not far from that in England, if the difference between gold and "greenbacks" is reckoned ; while, for the labouring classes, wages have risen more than in proportion to the increased cost of living. A carpenter or mason gets three or four dollars a day for his work ; it hardly costs him more than a dollar to live in respectability and comfort. The demand for labour—and labour, notwithstanding the emigration of hundreds a week, is still scarce in America—enables the workman to keep pace with the augmenting prices. The cost of living in a fashionable style in a good quarter of New York, is from ten to twenty thousand dollars a year ; but one may live in a good street, and with all the domestic comforts—not *luxuries*—on from four to six thousand. In the smaller towns, a family may live nicely for fifteen hundred ; in the rural districts, from a thousand to twelve hundred. Provisions are dear in the cities, cheap enough in the villages ; real estate is variable, especially in growing towns, and rents are capricious—much more so than in England, where the advance is slow and steady. Such items as coal and lights are higher ; furniture is about the same price, but carpets are much cheaper in England. Of course clothing—that, at least, made of stuffs

manufactured abroad—is very much dearer in America. Silks, woollens, alpacas, are more than double what they are in England. A gentleman's suit, which in England costs 5*l.*, would cost in America at least fifty dollars (10*l.*). An overcoat, obtained in England for 5*l.*, would cost in America sixty dollars (12*l.*). The hacks are much dearer—it costs at least a dollar for a course, no matter how short, in the cities. In New York the hackmen charge ridiculously exorbitant prices; and here let me say that hitherto the “hansom” cab has been unknown in America. The first thing which strikes the American tourist queerly in the streets of Liverpool, is one of these odd little vehicles, with the driver perched up behind. They are now, however, to be introduced into New York, where they will certainly create “a sensation.” The American hacks are usually larger and more airy than the English ones. The cost of travelling is about the same as in England. The theatres and concerts are somewhat cheaper.

APPENDIX.

NOTE A (p. 221).

CORNELL University, at Ithaca, in New York, founded a few years since by a munificent citizen whose name it bears, has introduced a new system of collegiate education, aiming to receive a poorer class of students, and to unite with book learning a practical knowledge, which will enable the students to support themselves, both while pursuing their studies and after having finished the university course. The plan has had a very marked success. The following, quoted from an American account of the university, will illustrate at once the nature of the new system and its results :

“A student has been employed in sweeping halls and lecture rooms, building fires, and in doing other work in connection with one of the university buildings. He has more than supported himself at the minimum rate per hour, but he has contented himself with the humblest fare, having eaten only three warm meals during the year—an abstinence which peculiar circumstances in his case seem to excuse. In spite of his frugality and his severe physical labour he has carried on four studies—involving an attendance upon twenty class exercises or lectures each week—and at the recent commencement took the highest prize for scholarship in the course in science, which is the most numerously attended of all the courses of study. He also obtained the highest prize in German. A western New York ‘State student’ has almost wholly supported himself by acting as one of the table waiters at the university commons, and as an assistant

in the university library. He has also pursued four studies, and in two, at least, of the trimestrial examinations, his average standing in all his studies exceeded that of any other member of the university. A student from Pennsylvania—a carpenter by trade—has earned monthly over forty-five dollars, besides attending all his university exercises with extreme punctuality, and maintaining the highest standing in all his classes. Two or three other carpenters have done nearly or quite as well, being hired by the carpenter in charge of the university edifice now building, and receiving the regular trade wages for each hour's work. A young cabinet maker—a New Yorker—having been permitted to fit up a workshop in a room belonging to the university, has earned between forty and fifty dollars a month in making wardrobes, bookcases, and other articles of furniture. He is an exceedingly good workman, and has passed every examination with marked credit. A student from New Jersey, possessing considerable knowledge of printing and owning a small Gordon press, has done such an amount of work for the university and other persons as to earn during the last month of the closing Trimester no less than seventy dollars. His average, however, has been about fifty dollars. Three other printers have been engaged in Ithaca offices during the afternoon of each day when no exercises take place in the university, and during the whole day on Saturdays. Their earnings, as compositors, have exceeded forty dollars a month each. Two students—one of them from Massachusetts—have succeeded in paying all their expenses, by practising their trade of painter. Their standing, like that of the generality of the manual labour students, is good in all their studies. Two students, coming direct from Bedford, England—the one a carpenter and the other a photographer—have not only nearly completed with their own hands a neat cottage of four rooms on ground assigned them by the university, but have earned a considerable sum beside. One of them is a remarkably good classical scholar; the other took the second prize in German. Ten or twelve students have been regularly employed upon the farm of the institution. They have taken care, with some irregular assistance from other students, of 200 acres of land—ploughing and tilling nearly fifty acres—of a dairy of ten cows, of two spans of

horses, of a horticultural garden, and of two orchards. This work has had to be nearly all done in the early morning, before the beginning of class exercises, and in the afternoon. By boarding in clubs and by purchasing their supplies at wholesale, these students have all paid their way. There are no better scholars in the university than several of them, and one was the recipient of a founder's prize of fifty dollars.

"These are only isolated cases, and do not represent the variety of trades and professions practised by the young men of the Cornell University. One student has compiled and put to press an excellent *Directory of Ithaca*, which will undoubtedly supply him with means for a residence of several Trimesters at the university. Quite a number have been employed as masons and plasterers during the afternoons and on Saturdays, either by the university authorities or by private individuals. Many have found situations as private tutors in Ithaca families, or have opened classes in elementary branches not taught by the university, such as Greek and Latin grammar, penmanship, music, fencing, phonography, and common English studies. Some have acted as book agents, or, as agents for the sale of other articles, have canvassed Ithaca and the vicinity in the hours not devoted to study or lectures, and have made longer business excursions to other towns on Saturdays and during vacations. A few, possessing special acquirements, have been engaged as assistants to professors in the laboratories, library, and museums. Several students, not being skilled artisans, were formed, early in the year, into a labour corps, and set at working, grading the university grounds, building roads, paths, and causeways, picking up stones, and removing rubbish. They have earned sums varying according to the number of hours which they have found it practicable to give to such labour.

"About a third of the whole number of students—that is, over 100—have been engaged in some practical occupation, and have thus contributed toward the expenses of their education. As the town of Ithaca increases in size, and as the plans and means of the institution are developed, a much larger body of young men will be able to obtain employment, and results still more striking than any given above will doubtless be attained. The university workshops, when completed, will furnish work to a considerable number of stu-

dents. The University Press, now about to go into operation, will need, during the coming year, ten or twelve skilful compositors, and none but such as have entered the university and are regularly pursuing their studies will be employed. The various edifices which are to be constructed by the University will, it is hoped, be built in part by student labour. The result of the whole experiment thus far has been well summed up in the recently-issued *University Register* for 1868-9. The conclusion there reached is to the effect that skilled labour can generally support a young man at the university; and that even unskilled labour when accompanied by rigid economy, an earnest will, and the requisite power of physical endurance, can do much toward defraying the cost of a collegiate education. The Cornell University would therefore seem to be specially adapted to those youths who have already spent one, two, or more years in acquiring some knowledge of a particular trade or profession. Such would find little difficulty in pursuing there, to the point of graduation, a thorough course of university instruction."

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